The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 1, 1886.

The Week.

THE President sent in twenty-nine vetoes of pension bills Thursday, and, so far as we have learned, they were received in silence by the members of both houses. When the previous batch went in, Senator Blair and Senator Logan were considerably ruffled, and were disposed to look upon the President's comments upon the bills as "impertinent" and "silly." They have possibly discovered that the people are not taking that view. What the President is doing is simply applying plain business principles to the work in hand. He cannot see why the expenditures of the Government should not be regulated with as much care as those of a private business concern. The introduction of "politics" into the distribution of the public money cannot make right wrong, cannot make illegal payments legal. The country is getting another glimpse of what the President meant when he said "public office is a public trust," and as usual it is much pleased with what it sees.

The thirty more vetoes of private pension bills which the President sent in on Friday appear to have been more than some of the offending Congressmen could bear with equanimity. There is talk of an attempt to pass them over the vetoes, but if the private talk on this subject is as silly as that which was made on the floor of the House, very little is likely to come of it. Mr. Bayne of Pennsylvania appears to have been chief spokesman of the injured members. He was astounded at the temerity of the President in "sneering" at the reports of the House; he even doubted his constitutional authority for doing such a thing, and he was entirely sure that the President was "no better than any other American citizen, and not the equal of any man who perilled his life and went out to save the Union." What has this to do with the question whether or not the claims made in the vetoed bills were deserving or not? We are not engaged in saving the Union now, but in administering the Government honestly and economically. The men who try to cover fraudulent raids upon the Treasury by shouting, "We saved the Union," are doing the sort of thing that was done for so many years when all sorts of scoundrelism and public robbery were explained and condoned by tearful allusions to the "poor negro."

The *Evening Post* prints in parallel columns some illustrations of the extraordinary legislation in which the present Congress has been indulging. Nothing like it, we venture to assert, has ever been seen in a parliamentary country. The practice of granting to individuals annuities called pensions, payable out of the public treasury, simply as a favor, is a very old one, but it has always been a monarchical practice. It was very common in England under the Georges, who put a considerable number of scoundrels on the pension list, though the worst of them were always quartered on the Irish treasury. Pensions provided for by legislatures, however, in later days, are granted for services the nature of which and the way of proving them are distinctly specified beforehand. This is the course which has been followed here. Congress has specified the reasons for which pensions shall be granted, and indicated the way in which claims to them shall be established. It has, moreover, set up official machinery for examining these claims and passing on them, and it is the most elaborate machinery of the kind the world has ever seen, for no other nation has ever undertaken to pay pensions on so great a scale. But now it not only withdraws the examination of certain claims from the Bureau created by itself for the purpose, but actually overrules the decisions of the Bureau, and grants annuities to persons to whom the Bureau refused them. More than this, it grants them to persons who would never have ventured to apply to the Bureau, well knowing that they had not the shadow of a title to public money on any ground recognized either by law or public sentiment.

An innocent foreigner, on hearing of this, would be very likely to say that here was another proof of the corruption and inefficiency of the American civil service. "See," he would observe, in a letter to the London *Times* or to the *Kreuz-Zeitung*, "the Americans have a great public office, carried on at vast expense, for the purpose of superintending the distribution of the immense sums which they are giving as pensions to the soldiers who have suffered in the service of the Republic on sea and land, but they cannot trust it to do the work. The wicked Democrats came into power in 1885, and the Republican Congress finds that the Pension Bureau, as managed by them, refuses annuities to men disabled on the battle-field or to the widows, while it bestows them lavishly and without inquiry on cronies and friends of the officers of the Bureau, who either never saw fighting at all, or left the service without a scratch, and never thought of asking for a pension until they were put up to it by a go-between who wanted a commission." What would his astonishment be in discovering that it was the Pension Bureau which was doing its duty, and guarding the Treasury from marauders, and that it was the Senate which was giving away annuities almost to all comers, without examination or inquiry. They gave them away without debate, at the rate, a Washington correspondent says, of from three to five a minute. On the 21st of April last, 500 of them were passed in two hours. What is most extraordinary, one Senator has actually set up a Pension Bureau of his own, which supersedes that created by law.

The Senate on Friday passed the House bill for the relief of Fitz John Porter, and as there is thought to be no doubt that the President will sign it, justice will at last be done in this notable case. One feature of the vote was most encouraging. Despite all the efforts of Gen. Logan to make it a party question and even a test of loyalty, six Republicans voted in Gen. Porter's favor, and two others were paired on the same side. Even Gen. Logan must recognize that the bloody shirt is "played out" when his most vigorous waving of the garment will not prevent George F. Hoar from turning "traitor" and voting with the "rebels."

Gen. Logan executed a skilful manœuvre in the debate on the Fitz John Porter Bill, which will be a startling revelation to his contemporaneous historian, Mr. Blaine, of the superior advantages which Logan has for advertising his work. He charged Porter with "conspiring" with rebels, and then, to prove his assertions, had the clerk read liberal extracts from Logan's own book, 'The Great Conspiracy.' Of course the speech will go into the *Record*, with the extracts and the reference to the book as history, and thus a first-rate advertisement, convenient for distribution under the General's frank, will be secured. There are several ways in which Mr. Blaine can get even, however. He can make another Irish speech, being careful this time not to get hold of Chamberlain's instead of Gladstone's plan for home rule, and then he can read that tremendous chapter upon Ireland which he put into his "history." If this idea does not strike him favorably, why not advertise Blaine readings, and popularize the "history" in that way? Our word for it, something must be done, or Logan will forge ahead as the great historian of this epoch.

A few years ago the announcement of the death of David Davis would have created a profound sensation. He then occupied a position of great importance in national politics, and was generally believed to have fair prospects for becoming a Presidential nominee. His eminence was, however, purely accidental. He happened to be in the Senate at a time when the two parties were equally divided there, and, as the only Independent Senator, he held the balance of power. He performed his duties as presiding officer with ability and fairness, but neither while holding that position nor while acting as a member on the floor did he show any especial fitness for public life. He was a good judge, and the chief lesson of his career is the old one of the mistake which a judge makes when he leaves the bench and enters politics. He was naturally impressed with the belief that his chances as a Presidential candidate depended entirely upon his maintaining a position of strict neutrality between the two parties, and this belief prevented him from taking a definite position upon any important public question. The inevitable result was that his candidacy was very short-lived. It is to be said of him that in politics, as upon the bench, he was always upright, and that all his actions were not only above reproach, but above suspicion.

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The Beck bill, prohibiting Senators from acting as counsel for corporations which have or may have legislation before Congress, was sent last week to the Judiciary Committee, which is supposed to be equivalent to its burial. The feature of the discussion was a speech by Mr. Evarts, who has at last found a subject on which he has some convictions. Mr. Evarts considered the bill a "stigma" upon every member of the legal profession, and declared that he would never by his vote "strike at the honor and dignity of the humblest member of that honored profession." There has been for some time past a good deal of talk about the effect of corporation influence in the Senate, but as it has been mostly rather vague, it has not attracted much attention. The fact that thirty-one out of fifty-two Senators are willing to go on record against a proposition so obviously sound as that embodied in Mr. Beck's bill, is calculated to set people to thinking.

Although a test vote in the House on Tuesday week had shown that a majority favored the new rule, allowing an amendment to be made to a pension bill, levying the taxes required to meet the appropriation proposed, the Republicans refused to allow final action upon the matter, and filibustered for hours on Wednesday against its adoption. Of course it is only a question of time when the Democrats can rally enough of their number to constitute a quorum and adopt the rule themselves, and the only result of the filibustering is to expose more clearly the demagogism of members who are ready to vote for pension jobs alone, but unwilling to vote for them if the taxes necessary to pay the bills are to be imposed at the same time.

President Cleveland, in his veto of the De-Krafft Pension Bill, said: "A large proportion of these bills have never been submitted to a majority of either branch of Congress, but are the result of nominal sessions held for the express purpose of their consideration, and attended by a small minority of the members of the respective houses of the legislative branch of the Government." This statement brings out a defect in the Federal Constitution, viz., the failure to require even the votes of a majority of either house to pass a bill. The Constitution does say, "a majority of each house shall constitute a quorum to do business." But in practice hundreds of bills are rushed through, as these private pension bills were, without a roll-call and without any attempt to find out whether a quorum is present or not. It is when Congress is "making political capital"—on a Morrison resolution, for instance—that members become conscientious about the presence of a quorum, not when they are voting away the people's money. The Constitution of this State is much more particular in this regard. It provides that "no bill shall be passed unless by the assent of a majority of all the members elected to each branch of the Legislature," and that "the yeas and nays be entered on the journal." Further, it provides that three-fifths of the members shall be necessary for a quorum to pass "any act which imposes, continues, or revives a tax, or creates a debt or charge, or makes, continues, or revives any appropriation of public or trust money or property, or releases, discharges, or commutes any claim or demand of the State"; and that the assent of two-thirds shall be required to pass a bill "appropriating the public moneys or property for local or private uses." These provisions form a protection against profligate legislation which has saved the State a great deal of money. If similar ones could be inserted in the Federal Constitution, it would save conscientious Presidents much labor and the country much scandal.

Four boycotters in Binghamton, N. Y., have been held for trial under interesting circumstances. They were charged with conspiring to injure the business of a cigar manufacturer who did not conform to the demands of the Cigarmakers' Union. A regular boycott was instituted against his business by the Union, and four men who were leaders in the movement were indicted. Their case was argued before a United States Commissioner, Charles S. Hall, and his opinion, holding them for trial, is published in full in the Binghamton *Republican*. He holds that the defendants were indictable for conspiracy under the Revised Statutes of the United States, and in giving this opinion says:

> "It should be remarked that the evidence shows that the defendants conspired to 'boycott' Hill, while the charge is that they conspired 'to injure, oppress, threaten, and intimidate him in the free exercise or enjoyment of a right or privilege.' But as the term 'boycott' is generally understood, and particularly as it is explained and illustrated by the acts and printed circular of defendants, it seems to me that no more complete, exact, and satisfactory definition of the term can be formulated than is furnished by the words of the statute, and that 'boycotting' and 'injuring a citizen in the free exercise of a right or privilege,' may without injustice to the defendants be taken to be one and the same thing."

The Milwaukee boycotters have received a strong dose of sound law from Judge Sloan of that city. Robert Schilling, the State organizer of the Knights of Labor, is on trial there for conspiracy and for making threats in connection with boycotts. In refusing a motion to quash the indictment, Judge Sloan held that a firm's income from its business was as much property as machinery or buildings, and that to prevent people from patronizing the firm was an injury to its property. He declared both boycotting and attempting to dictate as to who should be employed or discharged, to be offences under the statutes. "Laborers or capitalists," said he, "may organize for their own protection, but have no right to take the aggressive. In our social and industrial life and in our government, the socialist, the anarchist, and the boycott have no place." This homely truth is forcing its way rapidly into the minds of many people, but we regret that the procession of boycotters towards the penitentiary is not accompanied with an equally long procession of professional "friends of labor," who are the worst culprits and deserving of the harshest punishment.

The strike among the switchmen of the Lake Shore Railroad at Chicago is a remarkable proof of the extent to which a great State may be demoralized by an inefficient executive. Business on one of the chief lines of railroad communication is interrupted for days, the safety of travellers on passenger trains is imperilled, the public peace is disturbed, and serious riots occur—all, primarily, because Gov. Richard J. Oglesby has shown the evil-disposed that he has no backbone and that they may defy the authority of the State with impunity, so far as the chosen representative of the State's authority is concerned. The story of the present trouble is very simple. During the epidemic of strikes a few weeks ago the switchmen on the Lake Shore Railroad demanded that eight of their number should be discharged by the company because they did not belong to the Switchmen's Union, and, upon the company's refusal to comply with the demand, they struck work and caused serious disturbances for some days. A settlement was finally reached through the intervention of third parties whose interests as shippers were suffering. The company insisted that it had not yielded to the strikers, and it certainly had not, so far as the published terms were concerned; but the men insisted that there was an unwritten agreement that the objectionable "scabs" should be got rid of within sixty days. This period expired a few days ago, and as the non-union men had not been discharged, the Union renewed its demand that they should be turned adrift. These eight men with one exception have been in the employ of the company for from ten to eighteen years each; they have served their employers with entire fidelity; they are all men who have families to support. The Union men bring no other complaint against them than that they have refused to join the Union, and that they continued at work when the other switchmen struck a few years ago.

As there is no pretence of a grievance regarding hours, pay, or any other feature of the work, the strike is based solely upon the claim that a non-union man has no rights in this country. It is the same claim which was advanced so boldly in the Third Avenue strike in this city, and which in that case challenged the attention of the whole country. It is a claim which public sentiment has condemned as monstrous and intolerable, and which would hardly be advanced now in any community where public sentiment was reflected in the attitude of the authorities. Its reappearance in Illinois is largely, if not entirely, due to the failure of Gov. Oglesby to enforce the laws when "Labor" set itself above the laws in East St. Louis a few weeks ago. If in those troubles Gov. Oglesby had taken the same manly stand as Gov. Rusk of Wisconsin did in Milwaukee a little later, it is hardly too much to say that the Lake Shore switchmen would not have struck last week against the primal principle of a free Government—that a man has a right to work.

The convention of Chittenden County (Vt.) Republicans at Burlington on Saturday was rendered noteworthy by the fact that one of the delegates offered a resolution endorsing Senator Edmunds's course in the Presidential campaign of 1884—a course which the Blaine men have always claimed elected Mr. Cleve-

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land. The resolution was smothered by the Committee, which reported instead a resolution simply instructing the nominees for the Legislature to support the Senator's re-election; but the fact that every Republican convention yet held (in ten of the fourteen counties) has nominated Edmunds men for the Legislature, shows how little his attitude towards Blaine has injured him with the party. How strong was the distrust of Blaine and the sympathy with Edmunds's course among Vermont Republicans in 1884, is not generally understood, although it is clearly shown by the *Tribune Almanac*. Although there was no State where Republicans were more strongly influenced by an honest belief in the "view-with-alarm" plank, Blaine received only 66 per cent. of the total vote, against 76 per cent. for Lincoln in each of his two elections

The news that the Cincinnati *Enquirer* is in the market, and that it has had hard work to find a purchaser because of its general bad reputation, is a piece of welcome intelligence to everybody who believes in reputable journalism. The course of the *Enquirer* in Ohio politics has long been notorious. It was openly in the pay of the Republican party in the campaign of 1884, doing its utmost to sell out Cleveland in the interest of Blaine. Since that time it has been the persistent defamer of Cleveland and his Administration, attacking every effort at reform and stopping at nothing in its hope of bringing the Administration's civil-service policy into ridicule and disrepute. It has been for years the undisguised organ of a gang of ballot-box stuffers and corrupters of elections in Cincinnati. In short, its reputation has become so thoroughly bad that its editor finds the city no longer tolerable, and wishes to sell out his paper and move away. He finds to his dismay that his course has so injured his newspaper as a property that he can get nothing like the price he thinks it ought to bring. His experience may well serve as a warning to other editors who are possessed of the idea that in journalism some other policy than that of old-fashioned decency and honesty pays best.

Mr. Mayo is still on his travels in the South, trying to persuade the people that they are not able to support their own schools and must turn beggars. He has been for several weeks past preaching the gospel of mendicancy in Missouri, a State which already keeps her schools open 107 days in the year, against only 104 in Maine and but 100 in New Hampshire, and which has increased in wealth 40 per cent. during the brief period since 1880. The astounding ignorance regarding Southern education which he shows only renders more remarkable the vogue which "the Mayo myth" enjoyed until the *Nation* exposed its true character. In an address at Kansas City last week he spoke of Florida as "perhaps at the foot of the class" of Southern States in the matter of educational progress, although the last report of Mr. A. J. Russell, Superintendent of Public Instruction, shows that the school year in Florida is about as long as in Maine and New Hampshire, and that the "percentage of enrolment of children of school age and daily attendance is equal to any State in the Union." A professor in a Virginia college, who writes the *Nation* in hearty praise of its articles against the "bill to promote mendicancy," says:

"It will be a long time before we cease to feel the bad effects of this Mayo craze. Just as the negro had learned the lesson of looking to himself for help, rather than to the general Government, the white people began to see visions of 'forty acres and a mule.' That we shall not suffer as much as the negro did from such visions will be largely owing to the *Nation*, which sounded the warning in time to prevent the fatal results to our school system threatened by the Blair bill."

The true spoils theory is, though it is seldom fully unveiled, simply that the mass of the American people do not, if left to themselves, feel enough interest in the government of the country to lay aside their business even for a few days in the year, either for the purpose of selecting candidates for public offices or of voting for them on election day; that in order to keep the machinery of government in motion at all there has to be a semi-professional class called "workers," or politicians, to get up questions or "issues," as they are called, for the two parties to fight over, and to indicate the line to be taken by the party orators by drawing up party platforms, and "striking the key-note of the campaign," and selecting candidates to be voted for. When this is all done, these workers are supposed to go among the voters, and persuade them that they will be reduced to abject poverty, by a terrible decline in the demand for all products of human industry, in case the other party elects its candidates; and that therefore they must vote on election day, not because they care anything about principles or subjects of legislation, but to escape financial ruin. But, then, the workers will not do this work, it is thought, if they are not paid for or stimulated in it, by some sort of material prize, which must be cash or salaried offices. Therefore we must give them all the Government places as the prize of victory at each election if we are to keep the American Republic agoing as an organized political society.

This theory makes the spectacle we are now witnessing in Great Britain a great mystery. Should Gladstone be turned out of office at the coming election, about thirty offices, all told, will change hands, and about half of these are Cabinet offices. About one thousand candidates for seats in the House of Commons will present themselves to the electors, and of the 670 who will be elected, not over eighteen will have a chance of a place with a salary. Not one will be able to promise a worker or a voter a subordinate office of any description unless a menial one. Not one clerk in the Custom-house, or Post-office, or Inland Revenue Office, or War Office, or Admiralty, has anything to fear or hope as to the result of the election. The excitement about the canvass in all these departments is exactly like the excitement in the dry-goods and drug stores and breweries. Contributions to the electioneering funds are made by Government clerks, if made at all, on precisely the same grounds as contributions by doctors, or lawyers, or clergymen; that is, a man gives if he feels disposed or can afford it; but whether he gives or does not give, nobody knows. Now, on the spoils theory of government the result of this state of things ought to be that Gladstone, and Salisbury, and Trevelyan, and Morley, and Churchill, when they made speeches, would have audiences about as large as the Claimant's in this city the other night—150 all told; that the newspapers would give but meagre if any reports of political matters, and would give the greatest prominence to crimes and accidents; that even if they had political articles, nobody would read them; that candidates could not be found for one-third of the constituencies on either side, because few would be willing to pay the legal costs of the returning officers; that calculations as to the result of the elections would be useless, owing to the difficulty of determining what proportion of the electorate would go to the polls, and whether, in many boroughs or counties, any one would go at all.

The manifesto of the Comte de Paris, though, perhaps, a very natural document for him to issue, must be considered all that the Radicals desired in the way of justification for their harsh action. He admits that he is a claimant of the throne of France. He admits that the marriage of his daughter to the son of the King of Portugal had a national significance, for he says: "It formed a fresh tie between France and a friendly nation." He declares that he has as a Pretender 3,500,000 voters on his side, and maintains that France is coming to recognize, as the result of her experience of the republic, that the "traditional monarchy" is the only remedy for the evils from which she is suffering. He says, too, "the Republic is afraid," but that he has confidence in France, and "at the decisive hour he will be ready." It is difficult to see how anybody, no matter how much he may admire or sympathize with the Comte de Paris, can expect the Republican Government to allow a gentleman putting forward these claims, and holding these views, to remain on French soil.

Political affairs in Mexico are in pause, awaiting the result of the Congressional elections to be held on the 11th of July. The Administration is displaying unusual reticence in announcing its favored candidates. The Gonzalez faction is also surprisingly silent. Probably this does not argue improved political methods so much as new forms of strategy. It is pretty well understood, for one thing, that the Government is bent on securing the defeat of the troublesome Deputies who stood so obstinately in its way in the last Congress. A new element in the campaign is the "National Electoral Committee," with headquarters in the capital and branches in various parts of the republic. This is a circle of radical and advanced Independents, who are striving, in name at least, for the wider use of the franchise and for less governmental interference in elections. It gives some idea of the state of things which Mexican politics has reached, that the platform of this "Committee," just published, should demand individual and judicial rights amply guaranteed in the Constitution, but now in abeyance, such as freedom from involuntary servitude, trial by jury, the right of public assembly and of criticising the Government, and the absence of troops from the polls.

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SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, June 23, to TUESDAY, June 29, 1886, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE President on Wednesday sent to Congress seven vetoes, all the vetoed measures being private pension bills which originated in the Senate.

Mr. W. E. Smith of New York, Assistant Secretary of the Treasury, is to resign to accept the position of attorney for a Western railroad corporation, and Gov. Thompson of South Carolina is to succeed him as Assistant Secretary. Gov. Thompson is in harmony with the President's civil-service views.

The following special notice was on Thursday issued by the General Superintendent of the Railway Mail Service: "By order of the Postmaster-General, the clerks named below (naming twenty-nine) have been removed from the service for insubordination, in conspiring to obstruct the regulation of the service by the Department and to injure its efficiency. They have secretly attempted to form an association with a view to dictate action to the Department, and many of them have also been guilty of deception towards their fellow-clerks by representing the purposes of such association to be merely benevolent, and thus entangling them. At the same time the Postmaster-General directs me to express his gratification that so few, comparatively, could be found to engage in such a scheme, and his acknowledgments to those who have kept the Department informed."

The Senate voted on Wednesday, 31 to 21, to reconsider the vote by which the bill prohibiting members of Congress from acting as attorneys of land-grant railroads was passed, and then committed it to the Judiciary Committee, where it will probably rest. The only Republican voting against reconsideration was Mr. Van Wyck. The only Democrats voting in the affirmative were Messrs. Call, Gray, Payne, Pugh, and Ransom.

On Friday the Senate passed the bill for the relief of Gen. Fitz John Porter, six Republicans voting with the Democrats, yea. It has already passed the House and awaits the President's signature.

The Senate on Monday voted by 33 to 12 to insist on the steamship-subsidy item of the Post-office Appropriation Bill, but the conferees on Tuesday receded. The General Deficiency Bill, appropriating $6,062,845, was reported on Tuesday. The Des Moines Land Bill was passed over the President's veto by 34 to 15. The House on Tuesday finally disposed of the Post-office, Agricultural, and Army appropriation bills.

The Senate Committee on Privileges and Elections on Friday voted to report adversely on any investigation of the charges of bribery in connection with the election of Senator Payne. There will be a minority report in favor of an investigation. Senators Logan, Evarts, and Teller voted against an investigation and have excited the wrath of Ohio Republicans.

The Senate Committee on Post-offices and Post-roads has reported adversely the nomination of Clinton Rosette to be Postmaster at De Kalb, Ill. Rosette, in company with his deputy, left his post-office to take care of itself on two days last fall, and officiated as a public pool-seller at the races held in connection with the De Kalb County Fair; and after the death of Gen. Grant he printed an article in his paper rejoicing over it. While the case was under consideration by the Committee this article was read. When it was half finished Senator Maxey (Dem., Tex.) said: "Mr. Chairman, that's enough. I move that the nomination be recommended for rejection," and the vote was unanimous.

The House in the Committee of the Whole has incorporated an amendment in the Sundry Civil Bill requiring the Secretary of the Treasury to issue certificates of the denomination of $1, $2, and $5 on all surplus silver dollars now in the Treasury, in payment of the appropriations made in the bill and other expenditures and obligations of the Government.

In the House on Thursday, during the discussion of the Sundry Civil Bill, the opponents of civil-service reform attempted to prevent the application of the civil-service rules to the clerks in the Bureau of Engraving and Printing, but were defeated by a vote of the Committee of the Whole.

On Monday in the House Mr. Randall (Dem., Pa.) introduced his bill to reduce and equalize duties on imports, to reduce internal-revenue taxes, and to modify the laws in relation to the collection of the revenue.

The Democratic caucus on Thursday night appointed Speaker Carlisle and Messrs. Morrison and Randall a committee to select and push to the point of action such measures as they shall deem proper to attempt to pass. It is reported that they have decided that the time of the House which is not needed for appropriation bills shall be given to Mr. Cobb of Indiana, Chairman of the Committee on Public Lands, to press the forfeiture bills. This policy will defeat all the special orders, including the one setting apart days for the consideration of Indian bills. It is believed that it will not be possible to adjourn until August 1.

While the House, on Friday, was considering the pension bills, Mr. Bayne (Rep., Pa.) attacked the President for his vetoes, referring to him several times as "this man." Mr. Matson (Dem., Ind.) said the President was an honest man, and the people of this country knew it. Though he (Mr. Matson) did not agree with the President on this question, the President was a courageous man, and he honored him for it. Mr. Warner (Dem., O.) defended the President's course, declaring that his aim was only to keep off the pension roll men who were not entitled to go there.

The Massachusetts House on Wednesday refused to pass the Soldiers' Exemption Bill over the Governor's veto by 107 to 87, not two-thirds.

Thomas Cogswell was on Tuesday nominated for Governor by the New Hampshire Democrats. The Convention warmly approved the administration of President Cleveland.

The Alabama Republican State Convention met at Montgomery on Wednesday. There were about 100 present, half white men. All the utterances were for a protective tariff and the Blair Educational Bill. The Convention declined to nominate a ticket, leaving it to the Executive Committee to put up one or not, as they may think best.

Mayor Grace on Friday removed Gen. Alexander Shaler from his position as President of the Health Board, and forwarded to the Governor for his approval a copy of the evidence and findings in the case tried before him, in which Gen. Shaler was charged with receiving a bribe for his vote in favor of the purchase of certain armory sites while acting as a member of the old Armory Board.

The New York Court of Appeals on Friday, in the case of the Mayor of this city vs. the Eden Musée, gave a decision in favor of the plaintiff, affirming the order with costs against the defendants. The decision is an important one, as it definitively settles in the negative the vexed question whether licensed places of amusement in this city can sell ales, wines, or spirituous liquors, etc., on any part of their premises, even when they have an excise license.

The strike of Lake Shore switchmen at Chicago was renewed on Wednesday, because the objectionable non-union men had not been discharged. No freight trains were run on Thursday. The Lake Shore officials deny that they ever promised to discharge the non-union men. On Friday morning the strikers derailed a freight train. The police were powerless to prevent it.

An attempt was made on Saturday to run a Lake Shore freight train under police protection. It was pursued by fifty strikers on board two locomotives. After an exciting race at full speed, the strikers ran into the caboose of the freight train which contained the police. The latter fired at them, and then fled, leaving the train in the hands of the strikers. A number of arrests were made. Several freight trains were moved on Monday afternoon under heavy police protection. There was no interference by the strikers.

Judge Sloan of Milwaukee, during the trial of Robert Schilling, State organizer of the Knights of Labor, for conspiracy, practically ruled on Friday that since Schilling threatened to put the vast machinery of the Knights of Labor in operation to prevent the public from patronizing the firm boycotted, he injured the firm's income, which was as much property as machinery or buildings, and that to attempt to dictate to them whom to employ or discharge was a parallel offence. All organizations of the kind seeking to interfere with the business of manufacturers or others are not in accordance with law.

Three participants in the Southwestern Railroad strike were sentenced at Parsons, Kan., on Friday, under conviction of conspiracy, to pay $100 fine and be imprisoned thirty days. At Fort Worth, Tex., a striker was convicted and fined $125.

Paul Wilzig, who was tried in the Court of Oyer and Terminer in this city on Wednesday on a charge of extorting $1,000 from George Theiss, by means of the boycott, at the latter's music hall, was found guilty. Judge Barrett said he would defer sentence until the cases of Wilzig's associates had been tried.

Ex-President Arthur left this city on Thursday afternoon for his cottage in New London, Conn., where he purposes remaining until late in the autumn. It is hoped that he will be restored to his usual health by that time. He took all his fishing tackle with him.

The Yale University crew won the race at New London on Friday evening over the University of Pennsylvania crew by over twenty lengths in 24:44.

At New London on Saturday the Columbia University crew defeated Harvard's eight in a splendidly contested race. The course was in first-class condition. Columbia was about eight lengths ahead.

In the Eastern Yacht Club Regatta at Marblehead, Mass., on Tuesday the *Puritan* won the race; *Priscilla* second, *Mayflower* third.

David Davis died at Bloomington, Ill., on Saturday after a lingering illness. He was born in Maryland, March 9, 1815, and was educated at Kenyon College, Ohio, studied law and began its practice in Illinois. In 1836 he formed an acquaintance with Abraham Lincoln, and for eight years they travelled the same circuit. They became fast friends. He served as a judge of the Illinois Circuit Court from 1848 to 1862, when Lincoln appointed him a Justice of the United States Supreme Court. Judge Davis had managed Lincoln's canvass at the Chicago Convention in 1860 with great skill. As Justice of the Supreme Court during the war he upheld the cause of the Union with great fidelity. His decisions as a Judge showed remarkable ability. He left the Supreme bench in 1876 and was elected United States Senator. The manner of his election to the Senate gave him a sort of independent standing, and he was during the years from 1872 to 1880 often suggested as a Presidential candidate by the Greenbackers and other organizations. When the Senate assembled in extra session in 1881, Mr. Bayard was elected President pro tem. But the two new Senators from New York and one

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from Rhode Island had not then qualified, and when they did so, three days later, David Davis was put into the President's chair, and retained that position until March 4, 1883, when he retired to private life.

FOREIGN.

Parliament was prorogued on Friday. The Queen's speech was in part as follows: "My Lords and Gentlemen: I have determined to release you from your high duties before the full accomplishment of the regular work of the session, in order to ascertain the sense of my people on the important proposal to establish a legislative body in Ireland, for the management of Irish as distinguished from imperial affairs. With this object it is my intention to immediately dissolve Parliament. I continue to happily maintain the most friendly relations with foreign Powers. I have the satisfaction to acquaint you with the fact that the warlike operations of Servia against Bulgaria have been brought to a close through the wise councils of the Powers, and the forbearance of the Sultan, and also, after a period of anxiety, the adoption of pacific counsels by Greece."

Mr. Gladstone met with a most enthusiastic reception in Manchester on Friday night. He addressed an audience of 7,000. In his speech he said that of all the losses to his party none gave him acuter pain than that of John Bright. Although Mr. Bright's conscience had led him to place himself in opposition to the sentiments of the nation on this question, he had shown no eagerness to be first in the ranks of the dissentients. Of course the Government's opponents would not now let Mr. Bright alone. He was too valuable a man. Hence people had seen Mr. Bright giving Mr. Caine a testimonial of character, and Mr. Caine had already deplorably misrepresented this testimonial, just as he had the Liberal party which elected him but recently to the House of Commons. This testimonial made it appear that Mr. Gladstone had once condemned the principle of home rule. Mr. Bright knew that Mr. Gladstone had never condemned the principle of home rule. However, the audience would hear no criticism of John Bright from Mr. Gladstone. "I have taken a resolution," said the speaker, "never to be Mr. Bright's critic. I will never utter a word to disparage the man whose integrity I revere, whose character I love, and who has conferred upon his country services which cannot be forgotten."

In a letter regretting his inability to address the electors of Chester, Mr. Gladstone says: "The Tory policy of twenty years of coercion for Ireland is more rational, and contains more promise of being effectual, than any one of the intermediate and fantastic schemes which have come to birth under the exigencies of the election. The Duke of Westminster recently said that it was time for the Liberals to put their country before their party. That is just what I tried to do when I made known to the Marquis of Salisbury my desire to support him when he was Prime Minister, if he should introduce a comprehensive measure of reform for the government and peace of Ireland in conformity with, as we now know them, the views then entertained by his own Lord Lieutenant."

Mr. Gladstone, in his Liverpool address on Monday, said that home rule was a question of classes against the masses. The Liberal party was, as a rule, not supported by dukes, squires, clergymen of the Established Church, officers of the army, and so forth. Whenever there was a highly privileged, publicly endowed profession almost every member of that profession was an anti-Liberal. But from the legal and medical professions, which were now open, the Liberals received a fair share of support. The question was whether the masses were able constitutionally to overbear the classes, because it had always been shown that wherever truth, justice, and humanity were concerned the masses were in the right and the classes in the wrong.

Mr. Herbert Gladstone, in a speech on Friday, said that while Mr. Chamberlain was in the Cabinet he submitted an alternative land-purchase bill proposing to expend £40,000,000 to enable tenants on less than thirty acres to buy their holdings on the basis of from fourteen to sixteen years' rental, the only security to be their ability to pay and the responsibility of local bodies in Ireland.

Mr. Chamberlain in a published letter says: "Shortly after I joined the Cabinet Mr. Gladstone asked if I had any ideas on the land question, and if I had, to submit them in writing. I told him that I had only notions, and that without official information I was unable to test their value, but would readily submit them for Mr. Gladstone's own information. I did so, and heard no more of the matter until the second week of March, when Mr. Gladstone by letter asked my permission to circulate my suggestions among the members of the Cabinet. I complied, and the paper was circulated, not at my request, but at Mr. Gladstone's special desire. Mr. Gladstone did not adopt my suggestions, and I did not think it worth my while to press them. They were never discussed by the Cabinet. The Premier now invites me to publish them. I hope that at some future time, when I am in a position to develop them in the light of official information, I may be enabled to submit them to general criticism. All I will permit myself to say is that they differ in every essential particular from the Government plan—above all in this, that they do not contemplate the establishment of a separate, practically independent legislative body at Dublin. On the contrary, they presume the maintenance of the unquestioned authority of the Imperial Parliament."

Mr. John Bright issued a manifesto on Friday in which he said: "I do not oppose the views of the Government on account of England more than on account of Ireland. No Irish Parliament can be so powerful or just as the united Imperial Parliament at Westminster. I cannot intrust the peace and interests of Ireland, north or south, to the Irish Parliamentary party to whom the Government now propose to make a general surrender. My six years' experience of them and their language in the House of Commons and their deeds in Ireland makes it impossible for me to hand over to them the industry, prosperity, and rights of 5,000.000 of the Queen's subjects. Our countrymen in Ireland—leastways 2,000,000—are as loyal as the people of Birmingham. I will be no party to a measure thrusting them from the generosity and justice of the united Imperial Parliament. I have written so that nobody may be ignorant of my views. My vote in the recent division has given great grief, but my judgment and conscience made the other course impossible. For forty years I have been a friend of Ireland. Long before any Parnellite now in Parliament or any member of the present Government opened his lips to expose and condemn the wrongs of Ireland, I spoke for her people in the House of Commons and on public platforms. It is because I am still a friend of Ireland that I refuse to give her up to those to whom the recently defeated bill would have subjected her. If you reelect me, I shall to the utmost of my capacity seek only what I conceive to be for the permanent and true welfare of our country."

In Ireland seventy-seven Parnellite Parliamentary candidates will meet with no opposition, and seven seats will be contested. In London nine Tory seats will not be contested. In Scotland Unionists and Conservatives will contest sixty out of seventy-two seats.

Dr. Oliver Wendell Holmes on Friday received from the University of Edinburgh the degree of LL.D. A most distinguished company was present.

The French Government issued the decree banishing the French princes on Wednesday afternoon. That evening Prince Victor Napoleon went to Brussels and Prince Jerome Napoleon to Geneva. The Comte de Paris, his son, and suite left the Château D'Eu at eleven o'clock on Thursday morning for Tunbridge Wells, England, and will take up their residence there. Hundreds of Loyalists assembled at his estate to bid him farewell. The Duc de Chartres will accompany the Comte de Paris to England and afterwards return to France. The Duc d'Aumale and the Prince de Joinville will live together in retirement.

On leaving France the Comte de Paris issued the following manifesto: "I am constrained to leave my country. I protest in the name of justice against the violence done me. I am passionately attached to my country, whose misfortunes have rendered her still dearer to me. I lived there without infringing the laws. For tearing me thence, a moment was chosen just as I had returned, happy in having formed a fresh tie between France and a friendly nation. In proscribing me, vengeance is taken in my person on 3,500,000 voters who, on October 4, condemned the faults of the republic, which sought to intimidate those daily detaching themselves from the present régime. In me is prosecuted the monarchical principle transmitted as a trust by him who had so nobly preserved it. It is desired to separate from France the head of the glorious family which guided her course for nine centuries in the work of national unity, and which, associated with the people alike in good and in evil fortune, founded her prosperity and grandeur. The hope is cherished that France has forgotten the happy and peaceful reign of my grandfather, and the more recent time when my brother and uncles fought loyally under her flag in the ranks of her valiant army. These calculations will prove fallacious. Taught by experience, France will not be misled as to either the cause or the author of the ills she suffers. She will recognize that the traditional monarchy, by its modern principle and by its institutions, can alone furnish the remedy. This national monarchy, of which I am the representative, can alone reduce the importance of the men of disorder who threaten the repose of the country, can alone secure political and religious liberty, restore public fortune, give our Democratic society a strong Government opened to all, superior to parties, and with a stability which will be in the eyes of Europe a pledge of lasting peace. It is my duty to labor without respite in this work of salvation, and with the aid of God and the coöperation of all those who share my faith in the future I will accomplish it. The republic is afraid. In striking me it marks me out. I have confidence in France, and at the decisive hour I shall be ready." The manifesto caused considerable excitement in Paris.

The names of Prince Murat and his son have been stricken from the rolls of the French Army, because they belong to a former reigning family. The Duc de Nemours has resigned the Presidency of the Society for the Relief of Sick and Wounded.

The French flag is not hoisted officially over the New Hebrides Islands. It is simply displayed over a French storehouse on one of the islands. A British flag floats over another storehouse near by.

Premier Sagasta of Spain, replying to a question in the Chamber of Deputies, said that if he ever found himself in the presence of a Republican majority in Parliament, and that majority legally signified its intention of altering the form of government, he would submit the question to the national will for decision. Later he modified his statement somewhat by giving strong monarchical assurances. The incident, however, has caused a sensation in Spanish political circles.

Prince Luitpold was on Monday formally made Regent of Bavaria, to administer the affairs of the kingdom during the occupation of the throne by King Otto.

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"RALLYING" THE YOUNG MEN.

MEN who were not born when Lee surrendered in 1865 will vote, by tens of thousands, in the elections for members of Congress in 1886. More than a million men, 21, 22, and 23 years of age, who were not born until after the end of the civil war, will vote for President in 1888. On the other hand, the youngest participant in the election of 1888 who voted when Abraham Lincoln was elected in 1860 will be then within a year of 50.

The census of 1880 showed that there were in the country 8,270,509 native white males who had reached the age of 21 years, and that of this total 6,311,742, or 76 out of every 100, were between the ages of 21 and 49 years. Considerably more than one-eighth of the whole number (1,189,239) were 21, 22, and 23 years old, and the men who were 21, 22, and 23 years old numbered almost two-thirds as many as all who had reached the age of 49 (1,958,767).

These proportions remain constant, and will hold as true in 1888 as in 1880. They show that more than three-fourths of all the voters in the next Presidential election will be men who either were not born in 1860, or were then too young to vote; that more than one-eighth of the whole number will be men who were not born until after the close of the war; and that this latter class alone will number almost two-thirds as many as all the survivors of the last ante-bellum contest. This means that a new political generation is now upon the stage and is bound to control the Government. It means that the next Presidential election will be carried by that party which appeals most strongly to the support of young men—men to whom the war is only a tradition.

In his recent Boston speech Gov. Hill said: "I have only one suggestion to make to our friends in all parts of the Union, and that is to rally the young men of the land into the Democratic party." The remark indicated that the Governor appreciates the fact that the party which gets the young men upon its side in the next election will win. But there was nothing in the speech which indicated that Mr. Hill understands how the young men are to be got into a party. It was much such a remark as Mr. Blaine dropped in one of the speeches during his Ohio tour in 1884, when he said that the young men had always been attracted toward the Republican party, and urged the importance of "rallying" them into the party in that year.

No feature of the election of 1884 was more significant than the share which the young men had in deciding it. From the days of Fremont's candidacy down to the last national contest, the Republican party had secured the support of the larger share of the new voters in each Presidential election. Its progressive spirit had appealed to men who felt the enthusiasm of youth; its devotion to principle had commanded the allegiance of young men who had been educated to have convictions and to live up to them. The managers at last came to believe that this vote belonged to the party simply because it was the Republican party, instead of because the organization represented worthy purposes. They attempted a campaign without principles, depending upon "personal magnetism" as a substitute, and expecting that what they considered the "taking" qualities of their candidate would captivate the young men of the country. Meanwhile the Democrats showed the good sense to nominate a man who had no "personal magnetism" whatever, but who by his record made the party, for the first time in many years, stand for a real reform in government. The canvass had scarcely opened before young men of Republican antecedents became the heartiest supporters of the Democratic candidate, and Mr. Cleveland was elected because he received a larger share of the votes of the young men than had been given to any other Democratic nominee since the Republican party was organized.

The managers of both parties ought to have learned something from that lesson. It showed conclusively that there is only one way of "rallying" young men into a party, and that is by making the party represent something which is worth supporting. Of all voters they care least for party names, are least bound by party ties. Traditions carry little weight with them; bygone issues are of small account. They do not ask which party Andrew Jackson or Abraham Lincoln belonged to, but which party offers the best prospect of good government to-day. They do not inquire whether a politician favored the "black laws," as John A. Logan did, before they were born, or was a Copperhead in a war which they cannot remember, but whether he favors a purer administration now.

These young men find little to attract them in either of the old parties. All that Gov. Hill has to offer is an assurance that he is "not in favor of mere sentimental appointments," which they recognize to be only a paraphrase of the old motto, "To the victors belong the spoils." They look to Abraham Lincoln's State, and see a Republican convention assembled at Lincoln's old home nominating for the Legislature the Illinois member of the Republican National Committee, after his shameless avowal that he did not believe in civil-service reform "in any sense," and his declaration that it is the duty of the next Republican State Convention to "take bold ground against that infernal, unrepublican, and un-American measure," the Civil-Service Law. They turn to John A. Andrew's State, and find Massachusetts saved only by the Governor's veto from the adoption by a Republican Legislature of a law framed to take the life out of civil-service reform in its application to that State.

The politicians might as well understand that they cannot "rally" the young men into either party by such appeals as these of the Democratic Governor of New York and the Republican politicians of Massachusetts and Illinois. The young men do not feel at all unhappy if they do not "belong" to any party and are quite content to take their places in the growing army of Independent voters, who will decide the election of 1888, as they did that of 1884.

ENGLISH AND AMERICAN RAILROADS.

ABOUT a year ago Mr. Edward Bates Dorsey, of the American Society of Civil Engineers, read a paper before that body giving a careful and in many respects interesting comparison of English and American railroads. The subject was further discussed in October, and again about a month ago, and the interest in it shows no signs of flagging.

In some respects the English and American roads stand at opposite extremes in their methods of construction and management, while those of Continental Europe come midway between the two. The English railroads have cost on an average more than $200,000 per mile; those of Continental Europe about $100,000; and those of the United States (nominally) a little more than $60,000. The question at once arises, Have the English roads secured such advantages in comfort, safety, speed, or economy of operation as to make up for the increased first cost? This question Mr. Dorsey answers in the negative. In the matter of comfort, the very solidity of construction has proved a hindrance for it has rendered it impossible for the roads to make improvements without great expense in the destruction and removal of solid masonry. It has thus bound them down to a system of narrow cars, with all its attendant discomforts. In the matter of safety, the absence of grade crossings is a strong point in favor of the English roads, and the universal use of the block system is worth still more. Yet the statistics of accidents do not tell in favor of England, as is shown by the following table:

		Miles.
Average number of miles a passenger can travel without being killed.....	United Kingdom.	194,892,255
	New York.....	172,965,362
	Massachusetts....	503,568,188
Average number of miles a passenger can travel without being injured....	United Kingdom.	6,992,662
	New York.....	13,940,754
	Massachusetts....	23,955,630

It will not do to trust these figures too implicitly, seeing that the return of persons injured in New York is probably far from complete. Yet they show enough to justify us in thinking that railroad travel in England is at any rate not safer than in the northeastern part of the United States. How much of the trouble is due to the crowded traffic, and how much to the insufficiency of English brake power, it is impossible to tell. Something also is probably due to the greater speed of the English freight trains, which average about twenty-five miles an hour—much faster than in America. It is in the freight and accommodation trains that the difference of speed makes itself chiefly felt; the express trains are more frequent than ours, but not noticeably faster. For distances between 100 and 300 miles their best schedule times are slightly better than ours; below 100 or above 300 miles there is very little to choose.

The question of comparative economy is a more complicated one, especially since the English companies do not publish some of the figures which are most needed for comparison. We have no means of knowing, except in an indirect and uncertain way, what the average English railroad charges actually are. Mr. Dorsey accepts the prevalent opinion that English freight rates are from two to two and a half cents per ton-mile (about twice the average rates in America), while passenger rates, exclusive of season tickets,

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average two and one-third cents per mile. We are inclined to think these estimates rather large; that for the passenger rate is pretty certainly so. But making all possible deductions and allowances, the fact remains that railroad charges in England are higher than they are elsewhere, without giving the companies a correspondingly higher return on their investment. Mr. Dorsey analyzes their reports in detail to show the reasons for this; and while the analysis itself is of too technical a character to reproduce here, the results are of general interest.

He finds, first, that the great original cost of the English railroads was not, from a business point of view, justified by the results—that it did not effect a corresponding saving in current expenses. Second, the lighter rolling-stock in use in England makes it impossible to attain the same economy of power as in America. An English freight car weighs five tons empty, and carries a load of, at most, eight tons; an American car of most approved construction weighs twice as much in itself, but will bear nearly three times the load. For this and other reasons, the American train-load averages about twice that in England. Yet even with these lighter trains the English companies seem to pay out larger sums per train-mile. This is a third point for criticism, not less important than the other two, and far more perplexing. On the face of the returns the difference between England and America in this respect does not seem to be very great. When we come to make allowance for the cheaper fuel and cheaper labor which the English roads can command, it becomes noticeable; when we consider also the lighter train loads, it is surprising. How much of it may be due to the unnecessarily high speed of English freight trains, or how much to differences in organization, it is hard to say. Mr. Dorsey himself does not undertake to explain it. He contents himself with pointing out how great its significance really is.

He concludes his paper by saying:

"It would certainly pay the management of the English railroad companies to investigate the cause of the extra cost of motive power on their roads, and, if possible, remedy it. If this can be done, they will be able to *decrease their operating expenses* over 8 per cent., without making any changes whatever in present prices. This will enable most companies to *increase their dividends* largely—probably over 4 per cent. For what *is* done in the United States *ought* to be done in the United Kingdom."

This advice is easier to give than to follow. The evil lies too deep for boards of directors to remedy. It is involved in the traditions of English railroad management, which have lasted sixty years and cannot be changed in a day. The greatest trouble is probably due to the separation of railroad engineering from railroad economy. A railroad, even as a mere matter of private property, has two distinct aspects. To the constructing and operating departments it is a machine. To the traffic and financial departments it is an industry. The operating department must deal primarily with questions of engineering; the traffic department, with questions of business. It is the great problem of successful railroad administration to bring the two into proper relations to one another; they cannot be pursued independently. The best engineering may be the worst economy. The fact that the West Shore Road was such an excellent piece of engineering helped to make it such a disastrous piece of finance. The road must be adapted to the traffic and the traffic to the road.

This has not been the English policy. The engineering department has been left to work out problems in mechanics apart from considerations of economy. It has in times past been allowed to experiment with seven-foot gauge and other matters which brought no benefit proportionate to the cost. These worst errors have been abandoned; but the general lesson which they taught has not been learned. One instance will suffice: The *Railroad Gazette*, a few months ago, made a most interesting comparison of the history of fuel consumption in England and America. The English engineers attempted to diminish the fuel consumed; the Americans, to increase the work done. The result was, that the English saved a little coal which the Americans wasted, but that the Americans gained a great deal of work which the English did not.

This illustration will serve as a type of many others. Our comparative lack of trained engineers at the outset may have helped us in these respects, rendering the operating department more subservient to business principles where they conflicted with those of pure mechanics. Our railroad managers have sins enough to answer for, both of engineering and of economy; but they have at least not committed the cardinal sin of trying to divorce the two. And this, we suspect, is the reason why, in any comparison of American and foreign railroads, we find our detailed abuses so bad, and our general showing so good in spite of them.

JOHN BRIGHT AND HOME RULE.

Mr. John Bright has issued an address to his constituents, giving his reasons for opposing home rule, which will hardly exert much influence on the contest now. It does not argue the matter at all, but simply states, what was already well known, that Mr. Bright distrusts the Irish, and thinks that they are better governed by the Imperial Parliament than they would be by a Parliament of their own. Nobody will at the present stage of the controversy be converted by this, but probably a certain number of wavering or unsteady opponents of Mr. Gladstone will be confirmed by it in their opposition. Mr. Bright has long ceased to be a power in politics, but he has a great name, which is associated inseparably in the minds of all voters over fifty with the most glorious traditions and achievements of the Liberal party. Many a Liberal who is shivering over a proposed desertion, on this occasion, of the chief who has led the party to so many victories, will be made to feel easy in his mind by finding that John Bright is on his side.

But Mr. Bright's address is none the less very interesting as containing the sum and substance, or a sort of concentrated extract, of all the arguments brought forward against Mr. Gladstone's bill. We have taken the trouble to analyze a great many of them, including Mr. Goschen's, Mr. Chamberlain's, Mr. Trevelyan's, with the view of seeing what would remain after taking out distrust and dislike of the Irish. We can say confidently that any one who will do this will find that all the other objections to the bill except the probability that the Irish will not keep faith, or are not competent to govern themselves, are petty or trifling. The reason why any particular section or clause will not work, or will work mischief, is invariably, when the argument has been well sifted, that the Irish will break their pledges, or commit acts of folly or turbulence. In other words, it plainly appears that the opponents of the bill would have nothing or very little to say against it if they thought the Irish were like other people, or rather like Englishmen or Scotchmen.

Mr. Bright travels in his opposition on exactly the same lines as Mr. Goschen or Lord Salisbury, but he declines to trouble himself with the intermediate details, and jumps at once to the grand conclusion that the Irish, and especially "the Irish Parliamentary party," are unfit to be intrusted "with the industry, prosperity, and rights of 5,000,000 of the Queen's subjects." This goes at once to the heart of the matter, and if other opponents of home rule had been as direct as Mr. Bright, a great deal of speech would have been saved. As the Irish Parliamentary party represent three-fourths of the Irish people, this means that the Irish are unfit for self-government.

But Mr. Bright's proposition has, as an argument, a terribly destructive effect on some of the minor objections to home rule. In fact, it furnishes the Home-Rulers with some excellent ammunition. It disposes completely of the theory that there now exists a real union of the three kingdoms, and that Irishmen stand on a footing of equality with Englishmen and Scotchmen. No English statesman would venture to assert that either Englishmen or Scotchmen were unfit to be intrusted with the management of their own affairs. It admits, too, by implication, that the Irish representation in the Imperial Parliament is a sham, and it justifies the steady denial to the Irish of that control of their own legislation which has always been conceded to the Scotch. Finally, it concedes the existence among some of the best Englishmen—even Englishmen like John Bright—of a deep-seated dislike of and contempt for the Irish, for here we have them, when driven to the wall, avowing it in every direction.

Now, these three concessions form the basis of the whole case for home rule. The home-rule movement is based on them. Mr. Gladstone's appeal to the Liberal party is made up of them. What the Irish say is that the Union is a mockery; that it does not give the Irish equality of rights; that not only are they made the objects of exceptional legislation, but this legislation emanates from men who hate or despise them; that this representation in the House of Commons is a sham, and is only tolerated because it is a sham; that it is denied control of Irish affairs, on the very ground put forward by Mr. Bright for resisting home rule; and that the government of Ireland is therefore that most intolerable of all governments, a government of force wielded by men who despise those whom they govern; that, according to the generally accepted modern theory of civilized politics, dislike or distrust or contempt of a community, en masse, is an absolute disqualifi-

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cation for ruling over it by law, or in any way except by the sword.

There is a passage in an article of Mr. Philip Gilbert Hamerton's in the July number of the *Atlantic Monthly*, on France and England—the first of a series—which throws a good deal of light on the nature of the opposition with which Mr. Gladstone is now contending on the Irish question. Mr. Hamerton says:

"The difficulty with which the English can be brought to respect the French may be partly explicable by their difficulty in respecting foreigners in general, unless they have been dead for a long time, like Homer and Virgil, or are invested with a sacred character, like Moses and Isaiah. It may be further elucidated by the peculiar condition of the English mind with regard to respect and contempt generally. This is a subject of considerable intricacy, which cannot be properly treated in a few words; but I may observe here that although the English are said to be a deferential people, and have, no doubt, the habit of deference for certain distinctions, they are at the same time an eminently contemptuous people, a people remarkably in the habit of despising, even within the limits of their own island. Their habit of contempt is tranquil; but it is almost constant, and they dwell with difficulty in that middle or neutral state which neither reverences nor despises. Consequently, when there is not some very special reason for feeling deference towards a foreigner, the Englishman is likely to despise him."

If we remember that the Irish Catholics have always been foreigners to the average Englishman, and that it is only by a tremendous effort, and by the aid of a species of religious exaltation, that he rids himself of this way of looking at them, the political significance of the above passage at this crisis will be fully seen.

SOUTHWESTERN PINE TIMBER.

Of late a strange phenomenon has developed in the alpine and subalpine regions of southern Germany. Not only have the pine forests sensibly diminished, but replanting has become remarkably unsuccessful. A new and as yet unexplained agency not only produces gradual decay among grown trees of the most valued conifers, but checks even the most scientific efforts towards replacing the loss thus sustained. This is the case in Bavaria. Within the last few years extensive pine-nurseries have singularly failed. Under the most judicious care young trees would take root, grow for a short time, then come to a standstill, linger for awhile, and finally die off. This has occurred to such an alarming extent that the forestry department at Munich, at a loss to account for it, has, at least privately, entertained the idea of, so to say, "infusing new blood" into its forests, by the introduction of foreign species. Its attention has been turned to India and to the United States, to the Himalayas and to the Rocky Mountains. It is particularly the genera *Abies*, *Pseudotsuga*, and *Picea*, which are favorably looked upon as fit to become substitutes for and successors to their waning congeners in the Bavarian Tyrol.

In a general way it can be stated that the genus *Pinus* tapers towards the south, whereas southwestern *Picea* comes up from Mexico and runs out in Arizona. Of the former, *P. Murrayana* and *ponderosa* are most esteemed as building lumber, *P. edulis* (the "Piñon") is hardly good for anything but firewood and small beams. For posts, the red cedar and the junipers (*J. occidentalis* and *Californica*) are profitably used. While smaller conifers extend into the plain, the Piñon grows on extensive mesas or table-mountains also, as well as on lower slopes; the stately yellow pine covers crests and the higher declivities, and lines mountain torrents in deep ravines. Dense forests are not common. Northern New Mexico enjoys rather a widespread timber area in what is called "Tierra amarilla" (yellow land or soil), and the plateau of the Zuni Range, between Fort Wingate and Nutria, bears a fine growth of stately trees. Many cañons are well stocked; but, on the whole, denuded and treeless expanses vastly predominate. Arizona exhibits similar proportions. The pine regions around the Sierra Blanca are everywhere bounded by naked ranges, basins, and plateaux, and so are the San Francisco mountains. Towards the south all chains become more arid, and therefore, in appearance at least, abrupt and forbidding. There is, in place of lofty trees, thorny shrubbery composed of species which under favorable circumstances also assume arboreal proportions, like the mezquite (*Prosopis juliflora*), the palo-verde or green wood (*Parkinsonia Torreyana*), the red madroño (*Arbutus Xalapensis*); but conifers are scarce except in isolated and not very steep chains, like the Sierra Huachuca and the Sierra Santa-Rita, south of Tucson. Both are very high, the latter culminating at 10,500 feet. It is a well-known fact that the timber line of Arizona in lat. 33° to 34° N. is several hundred feet lower than that of Colorado in lat. 38° to 39°, but these are local conditions. Under the parallels of 37° to 38°, in Colorado also, the timber line is, on an average, 1,000 feet below that of only one degree further north, 600 feet below the uppermost tree-limit of the Arizonian White Mountains, and 1,100 feet lower than on the San Francisco Range.

No part of our Southwestern territories has anything that equals in magnitude the vast area, covered by coniferous forests, of the Sierra Madre of Chihuahua and of Sonora. The Sierra Madre begins in lat. 30° 45′ (about), and, as its slopes ascend, the growth of timber thickens and becomes more stately. The interior of the chain is, as far as lat. 29°, a vast elevated basin, thickly studded with pines, among which varieties of *Picea* are prominent. It is well watered, delightfully cool in summer, not too cold in winter. Game abounds, for along the watercourses grows luxuriant grass. But the region is inaccessible as yet, for so long as Apache outbreaks occur, so long will the savage make it his stronghold, his place of refuge. The greatest wealth of the basin, aside from mines (many of which are yet problematical), consists in its timber. Approach to it must come from the east, as the western entrances are few, tortuous, and often barred by nearly unscalable heights.

The example of Colorado, which possesses now a rather beneficial forestry law, may soon exercise a pressure on New Mexico, causing its Territorial Legislature to follow suit. Devastation of the limited timber supply in the Territories has considerably abated in the last years; the most dangerous time was when the Atchison, Topeka and Santa Fé and the Atlantic and Pacific were studding their roadbeds with "ties." No objection could be raised against this, so long as the timber was used within the Territories; but when it was cut in order to supply the Mexican Central Railroad, people began to murmur. At the present day, careless handling of fire in the mountains may and does cause occasional conflagrations. These are sometimes attributed to Indians, but the negligent traveller or prospector is quite as often responsible for them.

If attempts to increase the forests in the Territories should ever be contemplated, it should always be taken into account that their actual extent, or at least their extent within well-known past times, indicates very nearly the *natural* limits of indigenous conifers. To expand beyond such limits would involve experiments with foreign species. There is ample room for extensive planting of pineries on table-lands which are useless for agriculture, owing to lack of water for irrigation. Still, precipitation is copious enough for Indian corn, and the soil ample for juniper, cedar, and even Piñon. A conversion of some of these mesas into pine groves might effect a greater change in the climate and hydrography of the country than reforesting the Rio Grande Valley or raising orchards. Experiment would soon prove whether it is possible or not, and what kinds of conifers, indigenous or foreign, might be successfully used for the purpose.

THE EXPULSION OF THE FRENCH PRINCES.

Paris, June 17, 1886.

The Chamber of Deputies passed on June 11, by a majority of 83, a bill which exiles the Comte de Paris and his son the Duke of Orleans, Prince Napoleon and his son. The other Princes of Orleans, if they remain in France, will be liable, by the terms of the second article of the law, to be proscribed by a mere Presidential decree. They are prevented, by the terms of the fourth article, from serving in the army and navy or from holding any elective office. When the revision of the Constitution took place last year, the Congress already decided that the members of the families which had reigned in France could not be made Presidents of the Republic, Senators, or Deputies. The Orleans princes are now strangers in their own country, and the head of their family, when this iniquitous bill has been passed by the Senate, will leave the country, in which he has lived for fifteen years as a quiet and law-abiding citizen, remote from the agitations of the capital, in the midst of his young family.

We are far now from the days when M. Thiers said that "the Republic will be conservative or it will not exist." The framers of our present Constitution were all more or less inspired by the ideas developed in the 'France Nouvelle' of Prévost-Paradol. They thought that in our modern times there was no essential, no fundamental difference between a conservative republic and a liberal and constitutional monarchy. The Assembly which made our present constitutional laws had a monarchical majority; if it did not proclaim the monarchy, it was merely because the Comte de Chambord had pretensions which could not be accepted by the liberal members of this majority. It was well understood, when the constitutional laws were made, that the Congress which is formed by the union of both Chambers, could alter the form of the government and substitute the name Monarchy for the name Republic, the principle of heredity for the principle of election of the executive power.

These engagements were forgotten afterwards, and the contract was broken, even before the Comte de Chambord died. The Duc d'Aumale was first deprived of his command in the army. He was appointed Inspector-General of the French army, and he was allowed once to inspect three *corps d'armée* in the south of France, but this new function soon became merely nominal, and, *de facto*, the Prince returned to civilian life. The Duc de Chartres, who commanded a regiment in Rouen, was deprived of his command brutally and without even the semblance of a pretext, as well as his cousin, the Duc d'Alençon, who was merely a captain of artillery.

The temper of the Republic and of the republicans gradually changed: "Trahit sua quemque voluptas." They had undisputed power; circumstances had given them an authority which they did not owe to their virtues, to their courage, or to their intelligence. They had nothing to do but to heal the wounds of the country, to organize the army, the finances, to treat with moderation the traditional friends of monarchy; and if they had made France peaceful, contented, and prosperous, they would never have been troubled by any dangerous opposition, except, perhaps, the opposition of the Socialists and the Communists of the great

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towns. They decided otherwise. They first persecuted the congregations, forcibly breaking in the doors of the convents. They began, in every town and in every village, what is called the work of laicization: they took down the crosses in the courts of justice, and in the schools they no longer allowed the masters to teach the catechism to the children; they suppressed the salaries of the priests wherever the Concordat allowed them to do so. The Municipal Council of Paris suppressed some books in the schools merely because the name of God was pronounced in them. They ceased to be the nation and became a sect; they began a sort of new crusade; they made war not only on Christianity, even on philosophy and spiritualism.

This coarse imitation of the German *Kulturkampf* created much discontent; but many other mistakes were made. It would be tedious to enumerate them. The principle of the irremovability of the magistracy was violated; hundreds of judges were removed from the bench and replaced by creatures of the Government. The finances of the country were regarded as inexhaustible, and the extravagance of Parliament had no limits. Each deputy considered it a necessity to get costly favors for his electoral district and for his supporters. The electoral committees became a sort of market of public offices. The colonial policy of the republican Government helped to increase the debt. Tonquin and Madagascar have cost already immense sums of money. I remember that when the French budget attained the figure of two milliards, some orator of the Opposition told the Chamber: "Gentlemen, bow to this round number of two milliards: you will never see it again." The amount of the budget of expenses is now above three milliards, and there has annually of late been an enormous deficit. Only two months ago the Government made a new loan of 900 millions of francs. Meanwhile, the crisis which is felt all over the world is felt also in France; the disease of the vine caused by the phylloxera has greatly impoverished the vine-growing departments of France; the losses incurred within a few years, merely from this cause, may be reckoned in milliards of francs.

The general situation of the country required great moderation in financial matters, and great moderation in politics. But the republican party, even when it has become the uncontested master of the country, seems unable to change its old habits. Bossuet said that every man has a voice which all the time bids him "Marche, marche!" till he drops into his grave. Since the Assembly has left Versailles for Paris, it seems intoxicated by the atmosphere of the dangerous city, which has always been revolutionary. The members of the Municipal Council, who no longer take pains to conceal their sympathies for the Commune of 1870, dictate their will to the Extreme Left; the Extreme Left dictates its will to the Moderate Left; the Moderate Left to the timid and unwilling republican majority. A few men, obscure, mediocre, full of evil passions, mad with hatred and envy, succeed in enslaving the nominees of the people and the ministers. The President, who lives isolated in the Élysée, seems totally to ignore the duties of a republican magistrate: he is a sort of King Log. The Constitution gives him rights which he has not used once; he has not once attempted to support a cabinet of his own choice against the caprice of a majority. He would find a willing instrument in the Senate, but he has never understood the character and the use of the Senate, and he has shown himself disposed to sacrifice its rights to the claims of the popular branch. He has chosen ministers who, the very day after the Senate had refused to sanction some great change by law, have effected this same change by a mere decree. The Senate had rejected the seventh article of a law which forbade the non-authorized congregations to teach the youth of the country; in the face of this refusal, the President allowed his Cabinet to dispel these congregations by force. The Senate had refused to expel the Princes from the army by law; they were expelled the next day by ministerial decrees. M. Grévy has rendered the Presidential function impossible for his successors, or seems to have tried to do so. In the Chamber of 1848 he voted against the Presidency of the Republic; his ideal was then a republic with a mere Cabinet. He has kept his old theories in the Presidential chair, and has systematically annulled himself.

I will not dwell long on the arguments which were presented to the Chamber of Deputies by M. de Freycinet, when he spoke in defence of the law of expulsion as regards the Comte de Paris. It would be idle to prove that the Comte de Paris, when his daughter left France to marry the Duke of Braganza, had a right to allow her to take leave of her numerous friends, before leaving a country which she will perhaps not see again for years. M. de Freycinet seems to have considered that the Republic was in danger because the Comte de Paris invited on this occasion the members of the diplomatic body, though he did not invite them *en masse*, and only asked those who were his personal friends. If M. de Freycinet had felt so much uneasiness, why did he, five days after the soirée given by the Comte de Paris, appoint M. Billet, French Minister in Lisbon, envoy extraordinary for the ceremony of the wedding, especially as the courts of Europe did not appoint any envoy extraordinary on this occasion? Why did the French Foreign Office give M. Billet the permission to congratulate the King of Portugal on a marriage "which created a new tie between the two nations"? Something must have happened which produced a sudden and complete change in the sentiments of our Prime Minister; he must have consulted some very powerful and persuasive Egeria. His motives are not very palpable, for we cannot content ourselves with the theory which would condemn princes to be outlaws for the mere reason that they are princes. Napoleon used to say that politics were the modern representative of the ancient *fatum;* he shot the Duc d'Enghien in the name of inexorable destiny. Our French republicans will proscribe the Princes of Orleans in virtue of a so-called necessity. They do not know that the forces of imagination are the greatest forces in the world. If France, in an hour of need and in a great national calamity, finds it necessary to substitute a constitutional monarchy for a lawless republic, it will not much matter where the pretender lives. Louis XVIII. was unknown to the majority of Frenchmen when the Empire fell in 1814. There are necessities for peoples as well as for kings. M. Thiers used to say: "There is one thing which the people cannot make, which is *time.*" It took time to make the royal family of France, and, if France will ever again have a king, she cannot choose any other dynasty than the dynasty which has been for centuries identified with its own history, with its troubles and its triumphs, its miseries and its glories.

At this writing the Senate manifests a decided hostility to the law of expulsion as passed by the Chamber of Deputies. Out of nine committeemen selected in the bureaus of the Senate, six are adverse and only three favorable to the law, and these six are all tried republicans. One of them is M. Barthélemy-Saint-Hilaire, who was the most intimate friend of M. Thiers, and who has been Minister of Foreign Affairs under the Republic (he was in 1848 Secretary of the Provisory Government). The moderate republicans feel that the blow is not alone directed against the Comte de Paris and his family, but that a decisive struggle is beginning between the moderate republic and the radical republic, which is only a mask for the Commune.

Correspondence.

MISSING MARYLAND ARCHIVES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the sixth volume of the *Atlantic Monthly* is an article from the pen of the late John P. Kennedy, called "A Legend of Maryland," telling the romantic story of Talbot the homicide. As one of his authorities, he refers to an original Journal of the Provincial Council, covering the year 1684, consulted by him at Annapolis, and describes it very minutely.

Now, from the archives which the State has placed in the hands of the Maryland Historical Society for editing, this volume is missing, nor has the most diligent search been able to discover its whereabouts. Of the years 1669–1674 we have no original Council-books, though we have later copies; and of the years 1674–1694 we have neither originals nor copies. The book consulted by Mr. Kennedy has vanished, leaving a gap in the record at a most important period in the history of the province.

As there have been times when these archives have been very carelessly kept—one of the earliest original record-books known to be in existence was rescued from a junk shop not many years ago—there is a bare possibility that this journal or other missing records may have found their way to the collections of antiquarians. Should this be the case, and should this notice meet the eye of any possessor of even a fragment of the ancient records of Maryland, he will confer a favor by communicating with the Maryland Historical Society.

Wm. Hand Browne,
Editor of the Maryland Archives.

CORNELL'S FELLOWSHIPS FOR WOMEN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *Nation* of June 3 is an article by "M.," entitled "Collegiate Alumnæ," containing the statement that but two colleges yet offer the privileges of fellowships to women, and expressing the opinion that greater opportunities of that nature would be productive of much good.

Permit me to state briefly the provision made at Cornell University for the education of women. Besides being granted the same general rights and privileges as men, it is provided that twelve of the thirty-six scholarships of $200 each, continuing for four years, shall be open to *women only;* while they are in no way debarred from attaining any or all of the remaining twenty-four, should they be better qualified than their male competitors. Furthermore, eight fellowships are provided, each yielding $400 for one year, or, to quote from the University Register for 1885–86, "in cases of remarkable merit, for two years." I again quote, regarding the fellowships: "They are intended to offer to young men and *young women* [Italics mine] of exceptional ability and decided interests the opportunity for advanced study of a high character."

It will be seen that, while the fellowships are not open to women exclusively, they are granted to the most worthy applicants irrespective of sex. Whatever may be the case elsewhere, it seems evident that Cornell—with less than one-eighth of its 640 students women—has dealt equitably, even liberally, in this matter.

Respectfully, D. D. Jayne.

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ORTHODOX POLITICAL ECONOMY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Some of the statements of Prof. Perry, in a recent issue of the *Nation*, seem to me questionable; as, for example, that all cases of buying and selling are alike; that in no case of buying and selling is there any compulsion or any obligation except the obligation to fill the contract; that all buyers and sellers are equal, man to man; and that a man has the right to get as much service as he can, and to give in return no more than he can help.

If I go into a shop and buy a pair of shoes, that is one case of buying and selling. If a wealthy Italian proprietor hires a girl for six cents a day, that is another case. The two cases do not seem to me precisely alike. To call the contracting parties in the latter case "equal" seems sheer mockery, since the one of them may have the direst need to make an immediate sale and purchase, and the other no appreciable need at all. The girl sells her labor for six cents a day because she considers Indian meal with prospective *pellagra* preferable to nothing to eat. This does not seem to me to be very far removed from "compulsion." And the proprietor, I think, was under "obligation" not to take from her all he could get, and not to give in return no more than he could help. We are surely under obligation not to take advantage of a fellow-creature's weakness or ignorance when we make a contract with him as much as at any other time. Political economy is hardly far enough advanced yet to propound a brand-new law and gospel.

I strongly suspect Prof. Perry does not practise what he preaches. I was once drilled in his Political Economy by another professor of the "dismal science," who was as meek as Moses, as patient as Job, and too tender-hearted to hurt a fly. And yet he swallowed the most cold-blooded doctrines of orthodox political economy without a grain of salt. His favorite formula, "Here political economy steps in," was uttered with as much fervor as though it were an exact equivalent for "Thus saith the Lord." And had it not been for the questions of the amused students, there would have been little in his lectures to show that the "persons" with whom his science dealt were anything more to him than so many corpses.

J. C. Cozens.

Amsterdam, N. Y., June 21, 1886.

THE DEATH OF GEN. McCOOK.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the lately issued vol. iii of the American Supplement to the 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' under the head of McCook, it is stated of Robert Latimer McCook: "He was captured by bushwhackers while lying sick in an ambulance near Selma, Ala., Aug. 6, 1862, and was murdered by them."

A detailed account of the killing of McCook is given in the *Southern Bivouac* of March, 1886, published at Louisville, Ky. Frank B. Gurley, of Forrest's regiment, was commissioned by Gen. Bragg a captain of Confederate cavalry, and it was on one of his scouting expeditions that the General was killed. While pursuing some Federal scouts with his company of cavalry, he very unexpectedly ran into McCook's brigade while it was on the march. The troops were taken by surprise and were almost panic-stricken, and allowed the small cavalry company to ride almost the entire length of the brigade. While dashing through, Gurley and three others met two officers riding in a buggy. They fired, and wounded one of the officers; the other surrendered, and stated that his wounded companion was Gen. McCook, and asked for assistance. "Gurley stopped, and caused the wounded General to be carried into a house near by, where he soon expired." His sword was given to Gurley, who returned it to the General's family after the war. Many false accounts were given of the General's death: that he was murdered after having surrendered; that he was killed while lying sick in an ambulance.

In 1863 Gurley was captured, and confined in the State penitentiary until the close of the war; in the general jail delivery he was released. On being elected to the office of Sheriff of his county, the first election after the war, the old charges were trumped up against him, and he was "arrested, heavily ironed, thrown into jail, tried by a military court, and condemned to death. In all these proceedings there was great haste, and the conviction was entirely based on ex-parte testimony. A reprieve was granted by the President until he himself could investigate the matter; and, after a careful hearing of the evidence, he overruled the sentence of the court and set Gurley at liberty. This was not an act of clemency, but of justice, as the President, who had before him all the facts, was convinced that the prosecution and conviction were not warranted by the facts. The question 'Who killed McCook?' can never be answered. Of the four persons who were nearest him when he fell, one was killed in the cavalry attack at Fort Donelson, Feb. 3, 1863, another fell in battle near Kennesaw Mountains, Jan. 9, 1864."

C. Meriwether.

Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Md., June 23, 1886.

Notes.

A new monthly magazine, the *Menorah*, makes its appearance to-day in this city. It is to be the official organ of the Jewish philanthropic order, B'ne B'rith, but it will have nothing to do with religious controversy, and will aim at literary distinction.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. will bring out early in the fall 'The Boys' Book of Famous Rulers,' from Agamemnon to Napoleon I. The author, Mrs. Lydia Hoyt Farmer, publishes also, through D. Lothrop & Co., Boston, during the present month, 'The Story Book of Science,' and in the autumn 'The Prince of the Flaming Star,' a fairy operetta containing original songs, music, and illustrations.

We have received from Karl Wilberg, Athens, the prospectus of a work illustrating the Museums of Athens, edited by C. Rhomaïdes, and accompanied by a descriptive text by A. Cavvadias, and forty-eight heliotype plates in each volume. The number of volumes is left indefinite, but subscriptions for a single volume (at $10) are accepted.

We can praise everything about the "Handy Edition" of Thackeray's Works which J. B. Lippincott Co. are publishing in connection with Smith, Elder & Co.—everything except the size of the type. The press-work of these two volumes of 'Vanity Fair' is very clear, the binding (red-cloth backs) very tasteful, the price remarkably low, and yet the eyes must pay for it. This is true of the ordinary narrative page; but when we have a letter of Becky Sharp's, say, in still finer type, it becomes clear that this edition is meant for the public that knows its Thackeray already, and not for first acquaintance unless through a *loupe*.

Mr. Wm. J. Rolfe has made a 'Young People's Tennyson' (Boston: Ticknor & Co.) with good judgment in his selections. His notes are for maturer minds than he has sought to win for the poet, and so is the style of the otherwise excellent biographical sketch of Tennyson. A visit to Coventry would have led Mr. Rolfe to modify his note on "Godiva," so far as it relates to *one* effigy of "Peeping Tom" in that city. It is almost the municipal trade-mark. The book, by the way, is illustrated.

A reminiscence of the olden time comes to us from Chicago (the Interstate Publishing Co.) in the shape of a thin little volume, 'Old School-Days,' by Amanda B. Harris, in which the district school, with its teachers and scholars, its games, customs, and characteristic anecdotes, is once more drawn upon to revive memories in the old, and to teach the young how much better off they are than were their elders. The book is embellished with twenty-four illustrations, sketchy in manner, and less vivid than the racy descriptions of the text. But was it in the district school that the authoress learned such othography as "all wore '*tiers*,'" or such grammar and syntax as "how my class ever *come* by it," and "I do not know how many summers and winters I was reading in that book, but I should think there were ages"? We will not multiply examples, but content ourselves with hoping that the present boys and girls are at least as well taught in the rudiments as were the children of the old red school-house under review. Notwithstanding lapses of this sort, the picturesque and homely quality in the humble schooling of the country a generation or two ago is happily caught, and simply expressed, in this primer-like first issue of a series of volumes for home education.

Mr. James Dwight's qualifications for giving instruction in the game of lawn-tennis could not be doubted, and his name as author on the title-page of the little volume 'Lawn-Tennis' (Boston: Wright & Ditson) would warrant its purchase by every one interested in the subject. What is surprising is to find the literary quality of this manual so excellent—indeed, a model of clear, direct, unaffected, undogmatic exposition by an expert. One reads on for the mere pleasure of reading. The eighth chapter consists of cases and decisions; the ninth and last, of lists of winners.

Mr. S. Russell Forbes's sensible and straightforward guide-book, called 'Rambles in Naples,' has reached a third edition (T. Nelson & Sons). It abounds in maps, plans, and views.

E. T. Underhill & Co., No. 22 Spruce Street, send us a fantastic 'Picture Booke of ye Patchworke Vyllage of Sconsett by ye Sea,' pen-drawings after photographs of that quaint Nantucket resort, preceded by a copy of an ancient print showing Siasconset in 1791.

The two hundred and fiftieth anniversary of the founding of the city of Providence, just celebrated, prompted a series of articles in the Providence *Journal* from the pen of Mr. Reuben A. Guild, librarian of Brown University. These have been reprinted as a pamphlet with the title, 'Footprints of Roger Williams' (Providence: Tibbitts & Preston). Mr. Rider's sharp criticisms in his *Book Notes* have not been left unnoticed. The people of Rhode Island have not been very diligent in furnishing funds for the proposed monument to Roger Williams, and Mr. Guild contemplates the year 1936 as that of its probable completion if the funds now in hand are unaugmented except by interest.

The 'Annual Register for 1885' (London: Rivingtons) summarizes a checkered and important year. England was disturbed by the fall of Khartum, the Tower and House of Parliament explosion, the menace of war with Russia over the Afghan boundary, the defeat of Gladstone's Ministry on its budget, and the new elections which brought Lord Salisbury to the helm. All these chapters have a peculiar interest at the present moment. France in 1885 saw the setting of two Ministries (Ferry and Brisson) and the penumbra of a third. Germany was absorbed mainly in forcing its colonial expansion. The

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everlasting Eastern Question was revived by the union of Bulgaria and the impotent resentment of Servia and Greece. The United States had nothing so picturesque to show as the Old World, but the editor of the 'Register' has not overlooked the momentousness of the change of administrations in March. He quotes President Cleveland's inaugural in full, and abstracts his message in December; and the rest of the section is largely occupied with notices of the death of Grant, McClellan, Hendricks, and Vanderbilt. In the regular month-by-month obituary, Grant again receives great attention. There is the usual chronicle of events, and survey of literature, art, and science.

The competition of British electoral news with domestic is marked in our daily press, and tends to prove the essential unity of Great and Greater Britain. A life-size portrait of Gladstone, accordingly, is as much in order as one of Cleveland, and the Premier's face in front view may now be had of J. H. Bufford's Sons, lithographic publishers, of this city. There is a great choice in original likenesses of Mr. Gladstone, and we have known better than this; but if it falls short, it does not caricature.

Science for June 25 gives a folding geological map of Ohio, to accompany an article on the oil and gas wells of the State. Another interesting paper is that on the improved administration and cultivation of Cyprus under British rule, read by Mr. C. Gordon Hake, before the London Society of Arts.

The collection of geographical appliances, as maps, charts, globes, text-books, etc., used in teaching geography in different countries, recently on exhibition in London, has been taken to Edinburgh, where it will remain during this month. In connection with the exhibition, lectures are to be given by Messrs. Ravenstein, Scott Keltie, and others.

The principal paper in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for June is a lively account of travels in Madagascar by the Rev. W. D. Cowan, for ten years a missionary in that country. Civilization seems to have made but little progress in certain important directions. There are no roads, and consequently "nothing moves on wheels in all the length and breadth of Madagascar." The common means of conveyance is a "filanzana, a small leather seat, between two poles 10 feet or 12 feet long." These are borne on men's shoulders at a rate of from 20 to 25 miles a day. Mr. Cowan thinks "the island is perhaps the most varied and delightful in the world," with a "fairly enjoyable" climate, and rich in agricultural and mineral wealth. He prophesies that as soon as the country is at peace, a tide of emigration will set in to occupy the vast tracts admirably adapted for cattle-raising and wool-growing, as well as to search for the gold which is believed to exist in the mountains.

From recent observations made at the mouth of the Congo, it appears that an enormous delta, stretching in a northwesterly direction, is being formed. The very opposite is the case with the Amazons. Not only is there no delta, according to Mr. Wells, but "it can be proved that the sea is encroaching upon and eating away the land faster than the river can deposit its alluvial matter."

In a recent letter relating to British Bechuanaland the theory is put forward that underground rivers exist in that part of Africa, which could be brought to the surface "by means of long drains, or by the use of siphons," and utilized on an extensive scale for agricultural purposes.

The American Library Association will meet in Milwaukee on July 7, 8, 9, and 10. The recreative part of the programme appears to be unusually attractive and inexpensive. Members' friends who desire to avail themselves of the rates and opportunities held out, can do so on payment of two dollars, which makes them associate members of the Association for the year. The Library Bureau, No. 32 Hawley Street, Boston, is the centre of information on this excursion. Mr. Thorvald Solberg's paper on "International Copyright in Congress" possesses more general interest than any other on the programme.

—As to the teaching of English grammar, "J." writes us from Bristol, Conn.:

"This work is done almost entirely in the primary or common schools. It ought to be relegated to the secondary or high schools. English grammar has a place in the curriculum of very few high schools to-day. The knowledge of grammar which the scholars in those schools gain, comes from the study of Latin and Greek, which is, to be sure, useful and proper, but certainly does not tend to a knowledge of, or a facility in the use of, idiomatic English. The construction of a proper text-book will do most to promote the proper methods of teaching. Let the text-book contain: (1.) Examples for the illustration of, and drill in, what few forms of inflection are used in the language. (2.) A multitude of examples drawn from the best authors, illustrating these forms of inflection, the English idioms, and the use of all the parts of speech in their different relations. (3.) Suggestions for the production by the scholar of examples illustrating the same principles. The English language would thus, so to speak, teach itself. A supplementary book, dealing with the subject technically and theoretically, might be supplied for the scholars in high schools."

—"E. W." writes us, from Illinois:

"Having been on your subscription list from No. 1, I have for some weeks been purposing to write you a brief censure of your wrong position, and your failure to see *the underlying ideas* of our labor troubles; which furnish such a contrast to your right position on the Irish question."

But does not "E. W." see that it is not every one who can, like him, be right on *two* such questions? It is a great thing for an ordinary man to get right on one of the leading topics of the day.

—On a theoretical basis of bacteriology, modern surgery, under the lead of Sir Joseph Lister, has reached results that twenty years ago were as unattainable as would then have been the present use of high explosives or of economical electricity. Given certain appliances, and a successful termination for very severe wounds may almost be insured. Dr. Robert T. Morris thinks, and probably correctly, that the average doctor, especially if he has been graduated before the era of antisepsis, does not know all this, and he has written a little book, 'How We Treat Wounds To-day' (Putnams), which will open the eyes and perhaps loosen the tongue of the surgeon who has not just come out of a hospital nor cast off within the last season the swaddling clothes of pupilage. To the emergent medical generation life is evidently rose-colored. There is no question that their patients would all get well if only they might have the patients. They probably know all about it, and it is for their elders that Dr. Morris has kindly written, and written unconsciously of himself as well as of his subject. He is, it would appear, a young man, which is enviable; and an energetic one, which is commendable; and a confident one, which it is very easy and pleasant to observe. He has more regard for his facts, as he believes them and as doubtless they are, than for his style—although he probably approves of his style as well as of his facts. This is of the pincushion sort. He has cut up his literary material into a vast number of minute sentences of from one word to a dozen or two, sharpened for introduction. Each of these pins he sticks by itself into the brain of the reader, so that the little page twenty-five lines deep contains ten or a dozen distinct sentences, and is as staccato in its action as so many drum taps. In his effort to be forcible Dr. Morris makes true his prefatory remark that the book "is modest only in size, and possesses dignity only in its facts." Nevertheless, as his facts are facts that will require to be shot into some people, what is lost in one way is gained in another; and those who would heal, or, more properly, would allow Nature to heal, our bodies, may very well overlook occasional æsthetic infelicities for the value of the coincident information.

—We recur to Heine's 'Harzreise,' briefly mentioned the other day as edited by Prof. C. A. Buchheim for the Clarendon Press Series of German Classics (Macmillan). It must be regarded as an aid in the study of German literature rather than of the German language, for Heine's prose is not at all adapted for beginners. This is abundantly proved by the forty-five closely-printed pages of notes accompanying the eighty pages of text—notes chiefly linguistic, literary, biographical, historical, and geographical, and characterized by Prof. Buchheim's usual accuracy. The paucity of grammatical rules would be a regrettable feature if the series of German classics addressed itself to beginners, which it does not; and yet some of the notes show that it was not the advanced student or the teacher alone whom the editor had in mind. Thus, if so simple a word as "Die Nachbarskinder" called for explanation, why should not the more puzzling "lumpigste Ladenschwengel" (p. 81) have been translated? Of course the difficulties of maintaining a uniform standard of annotation are great; still, we think Prof. Buchheim has unduly, even if unconsciously, yielded to the temptation of giving hints to the translator rather than help to the student. Sometimes his effort to be literal leads to an erroneous or at least weak rendering, as in the case of "das . . . gottverlassene Ansehen" (p. 28), which, it is stated, "may here be rendered by *unhallowed*," though 'God-forsaken' would have been both stronger and perfectly literal. A few remarks show that the veteran editor, who has made his home in England for many years, is not quite *au fait* in the changing customs of his native country. Thus, it is scarcely *now* "the custom with German artisans, after completing their apprenticeship, to travel about, in order to gain varied experience in their craft," nor would a Berlinese admit that German school-books anywhere "*are*, or rather were, generally printed on a kind of blotting paper." Quite comical is Prof. Buchheim's attempt to wrestle with Heine's 'Manufakturwaren-Gesicht' (p. 79). "The oddly-coined word 'Manufacturwaarengesicht' may be rendered by 'manufactured-goods-like face,' or simply by 'manufactured face (!)'"—the truth being that "Manufakturwaren" is our plain "dry-goods," and the mysterious countenance a truly Heinish "dry-goods face."

—The *Revue Bleue*, in its number for June 5, has a posthumous study, by M. Gustave d'Eichthal, on the phrase *L'Être Suprême*, considered in relation to the Declaration of the Rights of Man by the Constituant Assembly of 1789. M. d'Eichthal asserts that the origin of this phrase has never been properly investigated, and that "to the immense majority of our contemporaries, even the most enlightened, the sinister figure of Robespierre, associated with this memorable innovation, has discredited it, cast ridicule on it, dishonored it." The thesis of the whole paper is that it was an innovation, and that it was a memorable one: "The formula certainly was new, and would be sought for in vain in the repertory of the old theology." The writer quotes from a letter addressed to him by the distinguished philologist, M. Adolphe Regnier, to the effect that while the expression *Être Suprême* was employed as early as the latter half of the seventeenth century,

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it was as "*cet* Être Suprême," not "*L'*Être Suprême"; and that Voltaire was the first to use it in the *absolute sense*. M. d'Eichthal strangely fails to point out that in the absolute sense, the Supreme Being, this "name," as it may unhesitatingly be styled, was in use by English writers for at least a generation before Voltaire, and that it may well have been imported by him from England. Addison in the *Spectator* (1711–12) uses it over and over again: "The exuberant and overflowing goodness of the Supreme Being." "There is an infinitely greater space and room for different degrees of perfection between the Supreme Being and man than between man and the most despicable insect." "It is folly to seek the approbation of any other being besides the Supreme, because no other being can make a right judgment of us." And so, constantly, elsewhere. Locke habitually speaks simply of "God"; but in his 'Thoughts on Education' (1693) this sentence occurs, where the form we are considering seems to be in a half-way stage between *a* (or *this*) and *the*: "There ought very early to be imprinted on his mind a true notion of God, as of the independent Supreme Being, Author and Maker of all things, from whom we receive all our good, who loves us and gives us all things; and consequent to this instil into him a love and reverence of this Supreme Being." Yet earlier he wrote, in the 'Treatise of Human Understanding' (1690): "If we examine the idea we have of the incomprehensible Supreme Being, we shall find . . . that the complex ideas we have both of God and separate spirits are made up of the simple ideas we receive from reflection; . . . when we would frame an idea the most suitable we can to the Supreme Being, we enlarge every one of these [ideas of existence and duration, etc.] with our idea of infinity; and so, putting them together, make our complex idea of God: . . . that complex idea whereby we represent to ourselves, the best we can, the Supreme Being."

—Berkeley, to come down a little later, in his essay on Tar Water, published in 1744, has this remark: "Nor is the Supreme Being united to the world as the soul of an animal is to its body." And afterwards: "The force that produces, the intellect that orders, the goodness that perfects all things, is the Supreme Being." But another passage does more still in carrying back the phrase to the Neo-Platonists. "'The Supreme Being,' saith Plotinus, 'as he excludes all diversity, is ever alike present.'" Three years before the publication of this, Berkeley's last work, and fifty years before the Constituant Assembly, Hume's Essays appeared. In describing "a superstitious man," Hume says (the passage is in the "Natural History of Religion"): "He considers not that the most genuine method of serving the Divinity is by promoting the happiness of his creatures. He still looks out for some more immediate service of the Supreme Being, in order to allay those terrors with which he is haunted." And two pages afterwards: "Every kind of barbarity is ascribed to the Supreme Being from the terrors with which we are agitated." Swift and Pope—the one in his accusations against the Deity, the other in his vindications of Him—preferred the form "Providence"; but their common friend Lord Bolingbroke, sixteen years Voltaire's senior, said: "The objections urged by atheists and divines against the wisdom and goodness of the Supreme Being . . . destroy their own foundations." "We may wonder," with Mr. Morley, "whether Voltaire ever read Hume's masterly essay"; but it is unquestionable that he picked up a great deal from Bolingbroke. Another (younger) contemporary of Voltaire, Johnson, while giving in his Dictionary as the only definition of the word God, "the Supreme Being," quotes from a work by Grew, published in 1701, "The Supreme Being, whom we call God, is," etc. And in a very impressive and singularly touching essay in the *Rambler*, Johnson enumerates among the circumstances and conditions of death "an immediate and perceptible communication with the Supreme Being." In 'Rasselas,' also, he uses the expression more than once. To an English reader, "the sinister figure of Robespierre" is certainly not that most closely associated with this phrase.

—The nature and scope of the *jus italicun* have long been the subject of controversy among scholars: the generally accepted view being that the soil of the provinces, not being properly the subject of quiritarian ownership, was therefore under the obligation of a land tax to the republic, and that the right in question, by assimilating provincial soil to that of Italy, removed these features of inferiority. It is certain that, whatever else it implied, it did carry with it exemption from the land tax. Dr. Bernhard Heisterbergk published last year a treatise of 190 pages, entitled 'Name und Begriff des Jus Italicum' (Tübingen: Laupp'sche Buchhandlung), in which this vexed question appears to have received a final answer. He shows that there was no such opposition as is assumed between the soil of the provinces and that of Italy, but that Roman territory wherever found was capable of quiritarian ownership. Further, that the *jus italicum* was identical with the right of a *colonia italica*—that it was invariably associated with colonies, and was the regular property of Roman colonies, inasmuch as these colonies were part and parcel of the Roman domain. Certain colonies, however, although consisting of Roman citizens, were of inferior right, and did not possess the exemption in question. The ground of the distinction and the origin of the name he finds in the fact that the earlier Roman colonies, as distinguished from the military colonies of the Empire, were without exception situated in Italy (a single temporary exception being Narbo, which seems to have been converted by Cæsar into a military colony). Under the Empire, therefore, the grant of the *jus italicum* meant the conversion of a town into a *colonia italica*, by which it became assimilated with the old-Roman colonies of Italy; becoming a part of the Roman domain, they acquired by this act the right of quiritarian ownership, and exemption from the land tax. Colonies, on the other hand, founded by the executive act of the Emperor (the military colonies, so called), although consisting of Roman citizens, were not Roman colonies in the broad and unrestricted meaning of the term, and did not enjoy the rights in question.

GRANT'S MEMOIRS.

Personal Memoirs of U. S. Grant. Vol. 2. Charles L. Webster & Co. 8vo, pp. 647.

THE second volume of Grant's memoirs is made up of two easily distinguishable parts: the one written before his prostration by fatal disease, the other dictated in the intervals of agony from the ravages of cancer upon his system. The first is comparatively short, including about one hundred pages only, and ending with the battle of Chattanooga or Missionary Ridge, though a note of the publishers tells us that the description of the battle of the Wilderness was also written before the great change in his physical condition. It is noteworthy that this division of the work is at the point where Grant completed his career in the West, and was transferred to the general command of all the national armies. The two parts, therefore, may be regarded as substantially independent of each other. His retrospect of his earlier campaigns at the West, and of his gradual rise to the first place among the generals developed by the Civil War, was written in comparative health of body and mind, and is a fair index of his methods of thinking and writing. The circumstances under which the later chapters of the memoirs were written disarm criticism, though we may still fairly say that the composition must always remain one of the most wonderful proofs of tenacity of will and domination over physical obstructions which even Gen. Grant has given to the world.

In noticing the first volume (*Nation*, No. 1078) we dwelt upon the progress of his military education by experience in actual war and of the development of his powers. The new volume covers the period of assured and self-confident action. His preëminence was uncontested. Lincoln and Stanton gave him unquestioning support, and put the resources of the whole country at his disposal. The Virginia campaign of 1864–5 is, consequently, his own work, after his own method, uncontrolled and untrammelled. His clear idea of his object was beyond question the right one—it was the defeat of Lee's army, which was "just over there in the woods," and did not need to be sought by any roundabout change of base. There are, however, two ways of dealing with an army when in contact with it. It may be attacked in front wherever found, or the tactics may be generally defensive while the strategy is offensive.

Sherman's Atlanta campaign must always be regarded as a model of the latter method, while Grant's Virginia campaign, till he crossed the James River, is a type of the mode of wearing the enemy out by persistent attacks which came to be only too grimly familiar as the method of "attrition." In both, the initiative was taken and continuously held by the national armies. On both lines the Confederate armies were gradually forced back till they reached centres of railway connection which could not be abandoned without large and permanent loss of territory and the transfer of operations to a new theatre. When this stage of the campaign was reached, the Confederates had no choice but to attack. Hood at Atlanta and Lee at Five Forks were under the same necessity. They must try the chances of assault, or confess that the cause for which they fought could hope for nothing better than a lingering death.

The difference between the Western and the Eastern campaign consists mainly in the subordinate steps taken to reach the similar results. Sherman distinctly adopted the rule of "flanking" his adversary's positions and forcing him to abandon them or assault, while he himself carefully avoided massing his troops to attack field fortifications. His principle was so well understood that he was sharply criticised for his only departure from it, that of Kennesaw Mountain, though his losses there were small compared with the smallest of the casualty returns in the many engagements from the Wilderness to Cold Harbor. "Retreat or attack my entrenched lines" was the dilemma he systematically put to his opponent. He saw clearly that the time must come when even this option would not be left, and when the enemy must attack or surrender. The wild desperation of Hood's attempt to transfer the war out of Georgia into Tennessee, leaving such an army as Sherman's behind him, was the public confession that such a crisis had come. The march to the sea and thence north through the Carolinas was the rapid reaping of the harvest. It reduced the limits of the Confederacy practically to the little space between Richmond and Greensboro in North Carolina. By saving his men, Sherman led sixty thousand war-seasoned veterans through the heart of a hostile country. Had he assaulted Johnston in front at every new position that general took, his army at Atlanta (if

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he had still had an army) would have been mostly of new recruits to whom the march to Savannah would have been an impossibility, to say nothing of the tenfold greater task of the winter movement through the Carolina swamps.

In Virginia, Grant also made flanking movements; but when Lee met him by equal extension of his lines, instead of applying counter lines, still pushing further to that flank or quickly shifting to the other, Grant's method was to make a determined effort to overwhelm his enemy at the new point of contact before trying new turning movements. This it was which made the fearful lists of dead and wounded from the Rapidan to the James, and which, after Cold Harbor, made similar assaults a moral impossibility. It means a great deal when Grant confesses (p. 276), "I have always regretted that the last assault at Cold Harbor was ever made." The knowledge of the great cost of life on our side has made our historians too sceptical in regard to the Confederate returns of killed and wounded; for the discrepancy is in great measure accounted for by the fact that they fought behind good earthworks. Whenever the conditions were reversed, as they were in several of Hood's assaults at Atlanta and in the battle of Franklin, the same enormous disproportion is found in our favor.

After the crossing of the James and the investment of Petersburg, it is not far out of the way to say that a new army of recruits was learning the soldier's duty, and a more careful economy of men and means was preparing the way for the final success. The last military lesson Grant learned was to modify his faith in aggressive fighting, and to adopt his great lieutenant's principle of making the enemy do most of the costly work of assaulting intrenched lines.

The sad conditions under which most of this volume was written forbade the reference to records and to the writings of others which even the best memory cannot safely omit. The treatment of the career of Gen. Warren follows the harsh lines laid down in Badeau's book, which was the authoritative expression of Grant's earlier opinions. Gen. Humphreys, in his volume on this campaign, has given evidence which is conclusive in showing that Warren was not obnoxious to the charges brought against him of delay or hesitation in obeying orders at Spottsylvania and Cold Harbor. In one instance, at least, when Warren was blamed for desisting from an attack, Gen. Humphreys shows that he himself, as Meade's chief of staff, delivered the order to do exactly as Warren did. Had Grant's health permitted him to read Humphreys's book, we must assume that he would have done something to correct the injury instead of repeating it.

The case of Gen. W. F. Smith is another in which the stubborn character of Grant's prejudices is shown. Grant had given the strongest personal testimony to Smith's abilities and military conduct at Chattanooga, and had expressed the same confidence in him down to the moment when Smith was allowed a temporary leave of absence before Petersburg. But this officer was never again allowed to exercise a field command. Grant himself does not explain his change of feeling; Smith has asserted that the cause was purely personal; and Badeau has intimated that the offence was a freedom in criticising, possibly in a sarcastic vein. No one could demand of a general in chief command that he should wholly ignore the recommendation of personal devotion in his subordinates, for this leads to zeal in execution, and is a strong factor in securing success; but in writing history twenty years after the event, justice demands that a great reputation and authority shall not be used to destroy or to belittle an officer's military character. He has a right to have his alleged faults so distinctly formulated that he may make an intelligible defence.

In the case of Gen. Butler, the relations between Grant and him after the war seem to have modified the somewhat notorious mutual dislike of which the country heard a good deal during the campaign of Petersburg and Fort Fisher. Grant devotes a couple of pages to explaining away the famous *mot* about Butler's being "bottled up" at Bermuda Hundreds, and the references to Butler's military career are kindly, if not complimentary. Comparing these recent expressions with the language of some of Grant's official documents written at the time, one cannot help seeing that the subsequent political friendship of the two men had a retroactive effect upon Grant's earlier judgments.

Indeed, the influence of his personal attitude towards others upon his opinions of their conduct, is one of the most plainly noticeable of Grant's traits of character. He shows an almost childlike naïveté in apologizing for the mistakes of his friends or in warmly praising their successes, while it is very hard for him to see any merit in those who had lost his good-will. This is shown in omissions as well as in affirmative statements, and one who is familiar enough with the actual course of events to read between the lines, will often have occasion to reflect how difficult Grant found it to do justice to any one whom he disliked.

The portion of the book which shows most plainly that the writing of this second volume became severe task-work is the synopsis of those military events which did not occur under the writer's own eye. He followed Badeau in treating the campaigns of Sherman, Thomas, Banks, Canby, and others as part of his own military history; but here it was impossible that he should do much more than make an abridgment and paraphrase of Badeau. It is painfully evident that he was unequal even to a critical reading of Badeau, for he falls into errors of fact which are plainly the result of inattentive reading. We cannot wonder at this. Let us repeat that the wonder is rather that he was able to write at all, especially when he left the field of his own retentive memory for one in which he was necessarily collating the statements of others. It is absolutely necessary, however, to note this, since to the general reader the great authority of the man will strongly tend to the reception of all his narrative as accurate and indisputable. It cannot be too carefully remembered, as we said in beginning the notice of the first volume, that the chief value of the book must be in the revelation of Grant's own character, feelings, judgments, and modes of thinking. It is both valuable and interesting as making us know *him* better than we knew him before; but, regarded as history, all the circumstances under which it was written precluded the possibility of that critical testing of memory and comparison of voluminous documents without which not even so prominent an actor on the world's stage can safely claim to write the history of his own time.

CURTIUS'S GREEK ETYMOLOGY.

Principles of Greek Etymology. By Georg Curtius. Translated by Augustus S. Wilkins and Edwin B. England. London: John Murray. 1886.

THE two handsome volumes in which Prof. Wilkins and Mr. England have given to the world the second English edition of Curtius's Greek Etymology are calculated to evoke sombre rather than sunny memories in the older generation of scholars, in those who were in the first flush of youth when Curtius rose on the horizon of the philological world, as a bright spirit that had succeeded in yoking together the fresh steed of comparative grammar and the ancient but vigorous and rebellious Pegasus of the classic school. The men who rule the present, with few exceptions, have to learn from books what was thought and said thirty-five years ago; they have not felt the hot breath of the enthusiasm, the icy chill of the criticism, of the past generation. It is one thing to read among Lehrs and Ritschl's ten commandments, "Thou shalt not pick Sanskrit roots," another thing to have the commandment reinforced by the thunders of eloquence and lightnings of wit. It is one thing to smile at the antiquated prejudices of the older school as conveyed in the acrid Latin of works that are often cited and seldom read, another thing to hear a man of genius and culture coolly assert that "really there is nothing in the whole business of comparative philology except what such an old noodle as Franz Bopp could find out." The stout old Grecians of 1850 did not believe it possible for a man to know Greek and to dabble in comparative grammar, and they looked askance at such a man as Curtius, who came forward as a mediator between the hostile camps. Nothing better was to be expected of Krüger, because Krüger, with all his excellences as a scholar, had a sad way of considering himself to have acquired a monopoly of every department he had worked in, and it was only necessary to write a Greek grammar or edit Xenophon's 'Anabasis' in order to call forth his wrath. To the day of his death he considered Curtius "a European humbug," to use his own language; and though few expressed themselves so plainly, there were sneers enough.

But if any man was qualified by openness of mind, by sweetness of temper, by charm of exposition, to act the part of mediator, that man was Curtius, and even those who had been reared in the classic camp welcomed his books with enthusiasm. None but the most obstinate could shut their eyes to the light that seemed to illumine the whole structure of Greek forms and to shed some penetrating rays into the domain of Greek syntax. Unfortunately for Curtius, unfortunately for the classical philologians themselves, the seductiveness of his style, so clear, so limpid, so touched with suasion, won the too easy assent of those who could not control his processes, and, while Curtius was reckoned a conservative in his later days, in the course of his long and successful career he led many a believing classical philologian a dance, the memory of which is rueful beyond expression, so that not a few of his early followers prefer to remain seated rather than to be guided by the new lights which have proved to their own satisfaction that they are true polestars and no misleading jack-o'-lanterns. The man who has been once fooled into believing that the κ of the Greek perfect was born of the hiatus, is too much ashamed of his credulity to accept the analogical formation advocated by Brugmann on the basis of a solitary waif, or the incorporated potential particle-theory broached by Osthoff. He looks stolidly at the form and submits to it as he does to the tariff on German books. And yet we are told on all sides that Curtius was sobriety itself. If so, the brewage is a heady brewage; and while it is an ungracious and a melancholy task to recall the various fancies of Curtius and his school that found lodgment in Greek text-books as certain results of comparative grammar, still it is not without its use to reflect on what may be called, from one point of view, progress, from another point of view, retraction.

There are few departments of scientific research in which the image-maker has been followed so speedily by the image-breaker, image-maker and image-breaker often being one and the same. In Curtius's Greek Grammar we were told that the loss of a short syllable at the end of

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a word is compensated by a lengthening of the remaining vowel. It was an explanation that was readily accepted—and it explained nothing. It made the personification called Language a court of claims for the adjustment of losses incurred in the war of the elements. Alas! Curtius found out after a while that only consonants that had property could leave property, and the 'Studien' took back what the Grammar had proclaimed as a certain result. The Grammar, we believe, followed after a space, but meantime the translations of the Grammar went calmly on exploding old-fashioned explanations of certain phenomena, which were after all the only true explanations. So point after point has been taken back that should never have been made—the late origin of the subjunctive, the formation of the middle endings; and those who praise the eminent sobriety of Curtius's judgment forget his fairy stratification of language. Of course much still remains intact, but how long will it so remain? His very editors confess that the world has gone beyond him, and present this new edition not as containing the latest and most trustworthy results of comparative grammar, but as showing the high-water mark of Curtius's intellectual life. It will be readily granted that if any man deserves this honor, Curtius deserves it. He did a great and memorable work, and did it in a spirit which lifted him as a man far above those who forget what he accomplished in their eagerness to set forth their own transcendent merits, who forget that without him they would have been impossible. And yet as a matter of duty to the younger generation, who cannot be supposed to have the same filial piety toward the memory of the departed master, it must be frankly said that it would have been better to postpone the new translation of the Greek Etymology until the editors could have registered the results of recent investigations.

To be sure, all American classical scholars are familiar with German, and what might be counted a mistake here may be fully justified in England. And besides, it must be granted that it would be very hard for a friend and admirer of Curtius to show the proper patience in recording even the best work of those who have rectified his processes. When one remembers his gracious and gentle ways, his thoughtful helpfulness of others, his quickening power, his wide range of vision, his generous receptivity, it seems a sacrilege to criticise him even as gently as has been done here, to say nothing of the ruder assaults to which he has been exposed. The disciples have outrun the master on the master's own lines. As he in his youth criticised Pott, so the *epigoni* criticise him, but not in his spirit. The man who insisted with so much vigor on the observance of phonetic laws, lived to see phonetic law elevated into a merciless machine with no check but analogy—and analogy that is not always in its right mind—so that the domain of comparative grammar, like the Empire of Russia, is a despotism tempered by assassination.

To the classical philologian, eager for light from every source—the old-fashioned indifference being now impossible—matters look gloomy in the extreme. The neo-grammarians show no toleration for any work done outside of their own school, and are doing their best to alienate classical scholars by their arrogance and to amuse them by their ignorance. No man can master a language by grammar and dictionary alone. The literature, the life, must give the setting for the facts, and classical scholars will not bow to the authority of those who mix up the characters of so familiar a play as the "Clouds," and cite a notorious barbarism as a normal Greek usage. And, not satisfied with this lordly neglect of those who are trying in their way to penetrate the secrets of classic expression, recent grammarians are flooding English—nay, European—speech with a Babylonish jargon. Instead of drawing on Greek for the expression of phonetic processes, the technical terms are introduced in the original package. We have got fairly used to "umlaut" and "ablaut," uncouth as they appear in English; but what shall we say of "dvandva," and "sandhi," and "svarabakti"? One really yearns for the return of the older generations of nabobs who gracefully moulded the language of India to suit the mouth of England, and gave us "punch," and "brandy pawnee," and "bungalow." Much might be done with "dvandva," and "sandhi," and "svarabakti," for English sounds lie provokingly near; but we forbear, and end as we began, with a sigh for the happy past of implicit faith in the certain results of comparative grammar, for the golden youth of the mediator between classical philology and linguistic research.

RECENT NOVELS.

The Story of Don Miff. As told by his friend John Bouche Whacker. A Symphony of Life. Edited by Virginius Dabney. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company.

A Desperate Chance. By J. D. Jerrold Kelley, U. S. N. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Haschisch: A Novel. By Thorold King. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.

Next Door. By Clara Louise Burnham. Boston: Ticknor & Co.

Natasqua. By Mrs. Rebecca Harding Davis. Cassell's Rainbow Series.

Demos: A Story of English Socialism. Harper's Franklin Square Library.

Major Frank: A Novel. By A. L. G. Bosboom-Toussaint. Translated from the Dutch by James Akeroyd. Harper & Brothers.

A Tale of a Lonely Parish. By F. Marion Crawford. Macmillan & Co.

Atalanta in the South. By Maud Howe. Boston: Roberts Bros.

The Sphinx's Children, and Other People's. By Rose Terry Cooke. Boston: Ticknor & Co.

Hurrish: A Study. By the Hon. Emily Lawless. Harper's Handy Series.

Love's Martyr. By Lawrence Alma Tadema. D. Appleton & Co.

Colonel Cheswick's Campaign. By Flora L. Shaw. Boston: Roberts Bros.

MR. DABNEY, in his warm desire to avoid the conventional methods of modern fiction-writing, tells the story of 'Don Miff' in a way peculiarly his own. He allows himself the luxury of a preface as well as an announcement to his friends—the book having been published by subscription. Yet in spite of the many odd devices which give the story an air of strangeness, Mr. Dabney's return to eighteenth-century models is too incomplete to produce anything more than a queer mixture of conceits with some occasional good work. He is hampered from the start as a story-teller by his desire rather to portray life as it was in the South in the old days than to tell his story merely, while his perpetual asides are wearisome. If a writer persists in taking the dear reader into his confidence concerning the most unimportant matters, he must not be surprised if the dear reader finds him quite as much of a bore as the people in real life who are always telling one of their affairs. The scene of the story is in Virginia, the time just before and during the war; and the author frankly admits that whenever the narrative compels him to show his sympathies on one side or the other, they will be found to be with those people among whom he was born, by whose side he fought, and with whom he suffered. This is all natural enough, nor can any one blame Mr. Dabney for his attitude. Nor, on the other hand, can he consistently object if the exhibition of his sympathies thus made should affect the reception of his book among those of the North who are ill-bred enough to still speak of "the Rebellion" instead of "the civil war."

The improbable motives and shadowy, uncertain characterization of Mr. Kelley's novel, 'A Desperate Chance,' are drawbacks too serious to be offset by exciting episodes. The book promises in the beginning to be interesting; but the absurdity of Marion Darlington's hatred for Marsden, the weak way in which it is accounted for by her partial insanity, and the general collapse and cheapness of the mystery, deprive it even of this quality.

Like the farmer who found a linchpin and built a wagon to fit it, 'Haschisch' seems to have been written for the sake of showing how a criminal might betray himself while under the influence of the peculiar drug which furnishes Mr. King with both the idea and the name of his novel. The part which introduces the haschisch episode is cleverly enough done; but the rest is so evidently nothing more than a preparation—setting the stage in order, as it were—that the forced situations strike one as more than ordinarily unnatural and sensational.

The excellences of 'Next Door' are not of the highest sort, but they are as refreshing—in the general lack of excellences of any sort—as a morning rain in a dry season. The tone is airy and light, but never flippant, while the story keeps unflagging pace with the style. All through one is rather entertained than interested; and it is very good entertainment, too, following the adventures of Aunt Ann and her cat, and the development of her nieces' love affairs. It would be hard to find two more pleasant, lovable girls than Kate and Margery, in the first place, or more worthy, suitable husbands for them than John Exton and Ray Ingalls, in the second. Then it is pleasant to accompany such characters through scenes so naturally and admirably done as the girls' boarding-house life and their vacation in the country. It is a great satisfaction to read on in confidence to the end, with a tolerably safe assurance that you will find no straining for effect, no posing, nor, in fact, anything but straightforward, genuine work. It is true that one is reminded of the psychical phenomenon of having had a similar experience at some other time and place, when Mrs. Exton, the aristocratic and invalid mother, is on the stage, as well as by the railroad accident. But, on the whole, the book is noticeable, equally with its other good qualities, for its freshness.

The absurdities of 'Natasqua' practically force one to consider the whole story as a mere piece of extravagance, in spite of its evident seriousness. A choice of oddities for character does not give us types, nor does an odd treatment make originality. The scenes read like the record of a laconic impressionist, and are without natural sequence or dramatic interest.

The one merit of 'Natasqua' is its brevity. But, in the opinion of the anonymous author of 'Demos,' there apparently is no merit in being brief. The story of English socialism, as 'Demos' purports to be, is extremely tedious, and is only superficially concerned with socialism. It is mechanically put together, without life or interest; and is so far from being a genuine *Tendenz* novel that it seems to have fulfilled its end in getting printed.

Mrs. Bosboom-Toussaint, who died a few months ago, was generally acknowledged to be the leading Dutch female novelist. When she first appeared before the public, more than forty years ago, the historical novel was popu-

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lar, and it was in this field that she gathered her brightest laurels. She did not possess the easy, conversational style of her principal rival in public favor, Van Lennep, but she far surpassed him in accurate historical knowledge. Her later efforts have been in the direction of the modern *roman de mœurs*, and of these 'Major Frank,' which appeared about ten years ago, is perhaps the best. The character of the heroine, a very independent and eccentric young lady, who owes her nickname of "Major Frank" to the masculine manners she has adopted, is well drawn, and although the type is not novel, there is much originality in the mode in which the idea is carried out. But it is not a great novel. Its form is against it. The story is told in letters written by the man who woos and eventually wins this fair young Amazon. If the hero were more sympathetic, the use of this old-fashioned form would perhaps not be so objectionable; but, unfortunately, of all wooden, uninteresting young prigs described in novels, this man is one of the worst. The plot is very slight, and the minor characters are either commonplace or repulsive.

Those who most admired the pyrotechnics of 'Mr. Isaacs' (and, indeed, astonishment was no small element in the vogue of that book) will find least entertainment in the present story. Judges of good work, however, will see in its more sober tone and its less ambitious aim the evidence of a care and painstaking which Mr. Crawford has not shown before. The quiet *mise-en-scène* is rather in the Trollope manner, and, by the time the main action begins, we are quite at home in the lonely parish, where the vicar and his wife are the only gentry, and where a beautiful woman can be glad to come to hide her sorrow and make both ends meet on three hundred a year. The dispute over the succession to the one great estate of the parish is opportunely settled at this moment; and the new squire, "a gentleman, a scholar, and a man of the world," appears upon the scene to complete the group of *dramatis personæ* for act the first. It ends, obviously, with a declaration from the squire to the beautiful lady, who confesses to him that she is no widow, but that her husband is a prisoner for forgery. Act second, the entrance of the husband and what became of him. Act third, "and so they were happy ever after."

The rapid movement which Mr. Crawford never fails to impart to his stories carries one through a first reading without any question. If this is all that is wanted of a novel, then this is a success. If a novel should be a fine and unsuspected combination of many parts and details to form a harmonious whole, Mr. Crawford has not yet by any means attained full mastery of his work. He selects a few striking situations, connects them with a train of more or less coherent incident, and trusts to a surface impression of the whole for his effect. What incongruities or what absurdities are committed on the way is no affair of his. Any chapter furnishes illustration. The Squire is a man "who, if he were remarkable for anything, it was for his apparent determination not to be remarkable at all," yet he walks in upon his first call at the heroine's cottage, without so much as saying by your leave, accompanied by a Russian bloodhound. (We cut the description.) "Quickness and sudden ferocity of the tiger, . . . his great red fiery eyes that reflected red lights, . . . the ferociously agreeable canine smile." The reader at once suspects him of being there for a purpose, and watches him stalk through the book to find an anti-climax at last, for the most commonplace watch-dog could have done all he did. The convict is overdrawn, with the exaggeration of some of Mr. Crawford's earlier characters. Worse men have escaped from prison, but here it is a question of relative values: he is much too big and too mean a rascal if we are to keep our admiration for his beautiful wife, for he had once been "the chief joy and delight of her life." Such a villain does not develop after thirty-five. Wrong he might have done, debased he might be, but his character should have been made consistent with the fact of a good woman's love for him. The conclusion presents the difficulty so often found in novels, to which the writers are so strangely blind. The same hero or heroine cannot with dignity figure in two love-stories in one book, unless one of them be a long-past memory or a distant hope. To watch with Mary Goddard through a scene as terrible as ever was possible where a man died in his bed, and then in a half minute to be told that she is the happiest of women, jars painfully. Such defects as these make it something curious to see Mr. Crawford placed for grave discussion side by side with such careful workmen as Mr. James and Mr. Howells; but, granted the defects even, it is a pleasure to mark the great advance on all he has done before. Mr. Juxon is a figure that deserves to stand beside any one of the worthy English squires with whom fiction has made us friends.

Miss Howe's book shows a gain in steadiness and sense of fitness over her earlier stories, though it hardly yet comes up to the level of serious work. This is of the more consequence since no one now can write of New Orleans without coming into sharp comparison with Cable. 'Atalanta in the South' is simply a collection of hastily outlined sketches, mainly of places, one or two only being of characteristic manners or customs, without any inherent dependence or even any skilful matching by the author. They are strung upon a slender thread of highly sensational story, of the sort which that latitude has furnished to the dime novel since dime novels were. Miss Howe has dated it fifty years too late. There is nothing of veritable New Orleans society in the book, for the two young men who supply the necessary rivalry are not primarily and naturally of it. The heroine, we are reiteratedly told, is "Margaret Ruysdael, sculptor from the North." Her father, and a lady who can only be described as from all over the world, with her husband, make up the little group of intimates. Three-quarters of the people who take up the book will finish it and call it entertaining, but not one of them will fail to see in it a carelessness that seems almost like scorn of good workmanship. The fullest complacency towards irregular idioms could not pass many of the English sentences, while the lapses from good taste are startlingly frequent. "Old man" and "old woman," and even "gaffer," have an accepted place in the irony of affection, but when it comes to "a grinning gargoyle," "a regular ringtailed roarer of a humbug," from a lady at the head of her table to her husband, in the midst of a dinner party, it makes the reader feel *de trop*, whatever the company may think.

Rose Terry Cooke's work stands out in strong contrast to Miss Howe's, for every page shows thoughtful painstaking. 'The Sphinx's Children' is but the name of a rather fantastic sketch which is prefixed to a collection of the stories already so well known in the *Atlantic* and *Harper's*. One of them, "The Deacon's Week," with the sweet sobriety of its working-day piety, has long ago made its way round the world. The stories are unfortunately no exception to the rule that short stories gathered together do not help each other —not in this case as to quality, for all contribute to the impression of careful observation with much loving sympathy, and of a constant aim after the simplest and most effective expression. So many of the stories are in a minor key that the sadness becomes a burden. In some shape or other, the ever-recurring subject is the forbidding aspect of New England life, one or two generations ago, and the revolt of the younger or more ardent spirits against it. The total effect is to make it duller, colder, harder, than it really was. One drive along the old Connecticut turnpikes will show proof enough of the existence of a large and generous life, side by side with such homes as Mrs. Cooke has preferred for her chief study. Her picture to be complete should more fully include both. At least, the apple blossoms come once a year in New England.

The odd title 'Hurrish' is but west-coast Irish for Horatio. It is the name of the hero of a pitiful tale of the wantonness of crime. It is only of private grievance and private vengeance, though Nationals and all the rest are, so to say, just within ear shot. It is well called "a study" only, and would seem to be a picture of some neighborhood, in County Clare, well known to the writer, who chooses to throw it into the form of a very slightly elaborated story. The book should not be passed by, for it contains most graphic descriptions of a wonderful and almost unknown country.

'Love's Martyr' shows unmistakable evidence of a direct eye and a strong hand, but both are wasted or misused upon a painful story which has not one gleam of light to relieve it. There is something in the tense, overstrained fantasies of the book that reminds one of the younger Brontës, though the present writer has vastly the advantage in knowledge of the world and in trained taste.

A novel by the author of 'Hector' has been a pleasant anticipation, which is now pleasantly realized. 'Colonel Cheswick's Campaign' is not a great book, but it is a charming story. The mutual love of father and daughter forms the main theme, which is worked out through all the manifold incidents of the attractive life of an English country-house. A wider horizon bends round the whole, encircling with the English fens the Egyptian sands. It would have been too much to expect, on the larger scale, the simple perfection of 'Hector.' Neither introspection nor analysis is part of Miss Shaw's method, and to fill her canvas she employs a number of minor figures which crowd each other, and which we could gladly have spared. Not of these, however, is the beautiful old pair, in their death not divided. The main figures stand out very clearly. It is no small power of characterization which, almost without a comment, makes us understand the complex nature of the Colonel and his wife. The latter, trivial, foolish, selfish, we can still see is lovable to the fond eyes of her loyal daughter. In the Colonel is combined that reckless, happy-go-lucky spirit which justifies self-indulgence that is even cruel to wife and children; and yet, in his place at the head of his regiment, he is the duteous, brave, ardent soldier. It was an early comment that the daughter, Ailsa, is only Zélie (from 'Hector') or Phyllis Browne (from the story of that name) grown up. No one will admire or love her the less for that: it is very high praise.

Mary Wollstonecraft Shelley. By Helen Moore. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1886.

THE life of Shelley's wife has hitherto been accessible only in a dozen different volumes, and the gathering of the fragments which is effected in the present book is a service of love. The lack of any good life of the poet is one reason for this biography; in fact, Mrs. Shelley's life, so far as literature is concerned, was included in his own, since she did not distinguish herself apart from him. The author of these pages consequently was compelled to give over two-thirds of her work to the years before Shelley's death, and to piece out the remainder with résumés and extracts from Mrs. Shelley's writings. In the

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course of the story there are two prime points—one, the unconventional union of the two; the other, their alleged unhappiness during the last year or so of Shelley's life. The first of these is very sensibly passed over as a matter which does not admit of argument. The second is treated somewhat more at length, and Mrs. Shelley is defended from Trelawney's charges of having troubled Shelley by her exacting nature and her regard for the proprieties. It is not a subject in which the world is much interested; but it must, we think, be granted that Shelley's poems and letters, the remorseful utterances of Mrs. Shelley in after years, and the marked anxiety she displayed in mature life never to offend against social forms, go far to sustain Trelawney's view. She had felt for some years the shafts of scandal, and knew the social penalties involved in departing from conventionalities of belief and practice, and a half-dozen little incidents may be cited in the last six months of Shelley's life which indicate a disposition on her part to be socially respectable and to bring him to order. Moreover, it is patent to every reader that Shelley was unhappy in his home life, though he tried to make the best of it. The cloud would probably have passed away with time. It is both pleasant and sad to read once more the oft-told story of Shelley's wedded life; and though this biography practically ends when its heroine was but twenty-four years old, the slight sketch of her long widowhood, her loyalty to her father in his poverty, and her care for her son, her industry, her little circle of friends, and her worship of Shelley's memory, is a memorial of an honorable literary career and of a refined and attractive womanly character.

The Chautauqua Movement. By John H. Vincent. With an Introduction by President Lewis Miller. Boston: Chautauqua Press. 1886.

THE Chautauqua movement is so various in its activity that this account of its history and view of its present state, both educationally and geographically, is a contribution to pedagogic literature of a notable kind. The Chautauqua "idea" has taken many forms, and it is difficult to make out what it is until one is told. Now it is a Sunday-school Assembly; now a summer lecture-bureau; now a missionary cause in foreign lands; now a reading circle, a theological academy, a university; now a park, pleasure-grounds, and cottages, or Houghton Farm, or local encampments sprung from a parent-lodge; now there are banners and text-books, the Hall in the Grove, the Order of the White Seal, the League of the Round Table: and to the uninitiated the whole is a perplexing medley. Dr. Vincent reduces all these manifestations of the "idea" into orderliness and coherence, and it is plain to see that—whatever one may think of an apparatus which seems to tempt the nickname of educational Salvationists—a very considerable work is being done in guiding the reading of many thousands of people. The success of the Chautauqua experiment—its "run," if one may say so—shows the existence of a want which must have been wide-spread and long-felt: the want, namely, of intellectual guidance for adults in the effort to improve their minds through books; and the "Chautauquans" have taken the lead in this and have developed an organization very influential upon the reading people of the country. In a sense the new "Reading Circle" succeeds the old "Lyceum." In the large number of its departments of instruction, under the necessary disadvantages of a correspondence-system of teaching, there is perhaps a sign rather of unrestrained and undiscriminating good-will than of wisdom; but as "Chautauqua" addresses itself rather to arouse, instruct, and cultivate the mind than to make scholars out of the people, it may be as well to sow all kinds of seeds, and leave their future to heaven.

However it be looked at, the movement is a philanthropic and humane influence in the country; and its genesis and development, as told here, are things to reflect upon, because of the light thrown on the social state in which an educational movement so conducted has in fact enlisted eminent men upon its side, and grown in favor with the common people. There is a note of glorification in these pages, however, which is incomprehensible in its vanity; a kind of camp-meeting *Io Triomphe*, which soars with hallelujahs in the "Hall in the Grove," and rolls to the skies the semi-centennial of the institution "with music in the air, among the trees, and on the lake, from bells, bars of steel, from chords of Æolian harps, moved into melody by the touch of electric fire," etc., rising to higher notes than we care to follow. As Dr. Vincent says, "There will be 'high days' in Chautauqua!" And one cannot refrain from asking whether it is religious "good form" to speak of the Sermon on the Mount as the "great inaugural" These things, however, belong with the paraphernalia of Orders, Leagues, and Seals, and the army marching with banners; they are accidents of the movement, which, on the side of its real power, its influence as an organ for democratic education beyond the range of the schools, is heartily to be welcomed and seconded.

The Life of a Prig. By One. From the second London edition. Henry Holt & Co. 1886.

THIS is the sort of a thing which was without a name till the word *skit* was invented. It is a very clever bit of writing, and it is calculated to give pleasure to a great many people because the prig whose life is written by himself displays his priggishness in a special manner. Its ridicule is directed mainly against two sorts of "feeble folk," the high churchmen and the agnostics, in about equal parts. All intermediate classes are allowed to go unpunished. But high churchmen and agnostics are not necessarily devoid of humor, and they are not necessarily prigs, so that for many of them also there is here a fountain of refreshing laughter. The author says in his prologue, "If this little work should have the effect of making even one prig more priggish, the writer will not have labored in vain." It ought to have the effect of making a good many prigs less priggish by holding up to them a mirror in which their intellectual and moral habit is exhibited without much exaggeration.

The extracts from the Prig's diary on pp. 11-13 are so good that we would fain have more of them. We quote two or three sentences: "Resolution at breakfast not to talk much in society or to make myself too agreeable. . . . Will endeavor as much as possible to check the flippancy of those around me." Next to being of a clerical family, a student, and an Oxford man, his great pride was to be a high churchman, but it galled him to find that some were higher than himself. Purchasing a few ritualistic books, in a little while he knew as much about "compline" and other "functions" as any of the most advanced clique in Oxford. He set up a private oratory, and, hiring a ciborium by the week, had various functions, among them the discipline of scourging, in which his friends assisted. After they had gone, with the aid of two looking-glasses he examined his bruises, and found them highly satisfactory. Concluding that he had a vocation for monastic life, he joined a venerable order, three months old, and had many interesting experiences, including a miraculous cure from a dangerous sickness which his rigors had induced. A tour upon the Continent was the next stage of his advance. Here he had much surreptitious enjoyment of Roman Catholic offices, and, finding his ability little appreciated by High Anglicans, he resolved to join the Romanists. But his conversion not being taken at his valuation, and the priest to whom he went advising him to buy a Penny Catechism and read up, he was so disgusted that he resolved to "turn his beak toward the East" and seek for consolation in the bosom of the Aryan world. He soon mastered all the great religions of the East. He remained a Brahman a week, and then passed on to Buddhism. It is evidently the Sinnett and Blavatsky set that is intended by the scholar who says to him, on page 85, "'My great fear is lest a number of literary fools should bring the venerable but mistaken old creeds of the East into disrepute and ridicule, by aping them or serving them up for modern use in a sort of hotch-pot.'" On pages 81, 82, the Spencer-Harrison controversy is not so vaguely hinted at but that it can be recognized. The Prig has now become an agnostic and a private tutor. His pupil also is an agnostic, with the fondness for the 'Imitatio Christi' which is peculiar to his class. The worship of the Ego is his final consummation. A lady wishing to adopt the cult, he assures her that of her Ego he knows nothing, but she is at liberty to worship his, and she consents.

No summary can give an adequate idea of this naughty satire, for its excellence is not in the circumstances of the Prig's career, but in his turns of expression, in his serene self-confidence and his ineffable conceit, that appear in every line.

Dictionnaire universel illustré biographique et bibliographique de la France contemporaine. Par une société de gens de lettres et de savants sous la direction de Jules Lermina. Paris: L. Boulanger; Boston: Schoenhof.

THE concluding part of this work, which forms a large and compact volume of 1,397 double-columned pages, has just been published. It claims to be an alphabetical record of all that constitutes the "intellectual and social life of France." It is a biographical dictionary of contemporary men and institutions in which literature has the lion's share; nor is it the best literature which occupies the most space or is the most carefully done. A marked feature of the work is the summaries (generally very good) which are given of comparatively recent novels and plays. In certain cases M. Lermina goes back as far as 1830 or even earlier. Thus "Hernani" (1830) occupies five columns; Vacquerie's "Tragaldabas" (1848) has half this amount, for the author never misses an opportunity to make the most of Victor Hugo and his school. Even "Bug-Jargal," the monstrous production of Hugo at sixteen, is fully analyzed, and three pages are devoted to 'Les Burgraves.' In general M. Lermina's book is full of interesting details, always given in the most friendly spirit whenever he has to deal with men or things connected with the most advanced political movement in France. The Commune finds favor with him, although he avoids writing an article upon it, simply referring to his own 'Histoire de cent ans,' and giving a long bibliographical list of two pages which sufficiently marks his tendencies. His evident desire to make the dictionary a good republican manual induces him to admit some articles very much out of place by the side of contemporary topics. Thus we find *Cahiers de* 1789 after an analysis of the 'Cahier Bleu de Mlle. Cibot' of Gustave Droz; but we do not find *Concordat*. We find *Catéchisme socialiste*, by M. Jules Guesde, but not *Catholiques libéraux*.

The tenderness with which the editor handles

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those who have defended radical, socialistic, and anarchical doctrines is exemplary. Jules Vallès, Félix Pyat, Henri Rochefort, and all the upholders of the Commune become very mild personages. But he goes out of his way to say of the Orleans princes: "Until now *ces messieurs* have kept quiet. *Ils font bien.*" As for Émile Ollivier, Jules Simon, Maxime Du Camp, and others, the writer seems incapable of expressing with sufficient bitterness all that he feels regarding them. The relative length and still more the tone of the biographies show plainly the writer's political proclivities. The D'Haussonvilles, Waddington, Leroy-Beaulieu, Taine, Cherbuliez have very meagre notices; but the lives of Rochefort, of Claretie, of Ranc are told with every possible amplification, and frequently quotations from those with whom M. Lermina is in sympathy are added. To the biography of Gambetta alone twenty pages are devoted, reproducing, with a few omissions, the life written by M. Joseph Reinach. Some names are entirely omitted, apparently solely because the political opinions of the bearers are not orthodox according to the author's standard. The notices of the writers on philosophical subjects are also extremely insufficient, and many of the names which ought to appear in any dictionary of contemporaries, are omitted altogether, as are those even of MM. Th. Ribot, Alfred Fouillée, Léon Dumont, Émile Beaussire.

From the long list given under the word *Revues* both the *Correspondant* and the *Polybiblion*, excellent publications of very general interest and strong Catholic sympathies, are omitted, and also the *Revue Contemporaine*, which represents a movement in French literature entirely ignored by M. Lermina. The too frequent omission of dates is annoying to one who seeks for exact information; but such omissions are perhaps inevitable in the first edition of so large a volume, as well as occasional discrepancies which betray hasty execution. Thus in one place the Erckmann-Chatrian stories are very harshly judged and pronounced unpatriotic (p. 171); in another (p. 774) they are more justly spoken of as books "où respire l'amour de la patrie." Under the notice of Taine's 'Philosophes français au XIXe siècle' we read: "À l'article *Révolution*, nous nous verrons obligés de combattre les tristes doctrines de M. Taine," but under the word *Révolution* Taine is not mentioned. In the list of Zola's Rougon-Macquart books on page 1256, 'Pot-Bouille' and 'Au Bonheur des dames' are omitted, though they are repeatedly mentioned elsewhere. The whole subject of this "histoire naturelle et sociale d'une famille sous le second Empire" is very fully treated under *Rougon-Macquart* in six closely printed pages, composed in great part of a certain very curious document which M. Zola placed in the hands of a publisher as long ago as 1868, three years before the publication of the first work of the series, and which M. Lermina has not hesitated to reproduce, with the object of showing the author's persistence in carrying out, in all essential particulars, a plan conceived nearly twenty years ago.

On the whole, in spite of its many deficiencies, M. Lermina's dictionary will be found very useful. It gives information that cannot be found indexed or classified anywhere else. Vapereau's 'Dictionnaire des Contemporains' is good only for the biographies of the most celebrated men; Larousse's 'Grand Dictionnaire universel,' even with the Supplement, does not give information beyond 1877; while the 'Dictionnaire de la France contemporaine' aims to be complete up to the end of 1885. The synopses of so many books, novels, plays, poems, are destined to be often used without acknowledgment. They certainly will not take the place of a reading of the originals, but how many a hurried writer, not only outside of France, but in Paris itself, will they help out of difficulty. The book is made to help the hurried man. There is even an index at the end of the names of authors, of whom there is sometimes no separate notice, with an indication of such of their works as are analyzed, to aid the memory of those who may have forgotten the exact title of the book about which they may wish to know something.

Scotland in Pagan Times. The Bronze and Stone Ages. By Joseph Anderson, LL.D., Keeper of the National Museum of the Antiquaries of Scotland. Edinburgh: David Douglas. 1886.

With this fourth volume of the series, Dr. Anderson completes his course as Rhind Lecturer in connection with the Society of Antiquaries of Scotland for 1879-82. The previous volumes have been noticed in the *Nation* as they appeared. These lectures were intended to embrace a general review of the whole existing materials for the archæology of Scotland, which the ravages of time and the vandalism of farmers are causing rapidly to disappear.

Inverting the usual order, Dr. Anderson ascends the stream. His starting point is where history proper ends and archæology begins. Regarding the historical method of dealing with "prehistoric" materials as wholly inapplicable to them, he substitutes what he calls a purely scientific method:

"Instead of commencing with the story of primeval man, and leading the narration downwards (as if drawing it from record), it was necessary to select a starting-place in the region of history bordering on the prehistoric, from which, by tracing upwards, through the unrecorded ages, the interlinked succession of types and systems, he might penetrate as far towards the primitive conditions of human life in Scotland as the materials might serve to carry the investigation."

Beginning, therefore, with the twelfth century, beyond which all the common materials of history are left behind, Dr. Anderson's first two volumes dealt with "Scotland in Early Christian Times." In them were described the structural remains and relics of the early Christian times in Scotland—the edifices of the early Celtic Church, the bee-hive cells, and other ecclesiastical remains; and also the other relics of "that school of early art that arose and flourished among the Celtic Scots when art in Europe was well-nigh dead—a series of monumental sculptures of a class which exists in no other country in the world, and exhibiting a system of mysterious symbolism which is found in no land but our own."

Passing to "Scotland in Pagan Times," and adopting the popular classification of the three stages of progress towards the existing culture and civilization marked by the use of Stone, Bronze, and Iron, in the third volume the lecturer dealt with the relics of the Iron Age as shown in the Brochs, Crannogs, Yird Houses, and other remains, some of them so specially Scottish that no single example of them is known elsewhere. The present volume takes an exhaustive survey of the field belonging to the Bronze and Stone ages. Under the headings of "Bronze Age Burials," "Circles, and Settings of Standing Stones," and "Weapons, Implements, &c., of the Bronze Age," Dr. Anderson gives a minute account of the typical phenomena of Bronze Age Burials and of the typical characteristics of the Bronze Age culture. The Circles and Settings of Standing Stones, so numerous in some parts of the country, and which have given rise to so many theories as to their origin and purpose, he does not regard as the remains of temples of the Druids. "In point of fact, there is nothing which is of the nature of evidence by which the stone circles of Scotland can be assigned to any race or historic order of men. Taking them at their own testimony, the only evidence they yield amounts to this, that they are the funeral marks of our Pagan predecessors of the Age of Bronze." His general conclusion as to the characteristics of this peculiar phase of culture and civilization as manifested in Scotland is as follows:

"Whether they be weapons or tools, they have this characteristic in common, that they are always well made, substantial, and purpose-like. They possess the high merit of being well designed, graceful in outline, and finely proportioned, exhibiting, even in the commonest articles, a play of fancy in the subtle variations of their distinctive forms that is specially remarkable. As the forms of the manufactured articles were given to them in the moulds in which they were cast, it is evident that the brain that designed and the hand which modelled these forms must have been specially conversant with the technicalities of complicated processes, and with the experiences of dexterous and skilful workmanship implied in such manufactures. The hammered work of the period was equally skilful. The large globular caldrons, formed of plates of bronze beaten almost as thin as sheets of paper, riveted together, and ornamented with studs, are really beautiful works of industrial art; and I venture to say that nothing finer than the workmanship of these bronze shields has ever been produced by the hammer. If life with them was a struggle for existence, we look in vain for its memorials: but there is no wide district of country in which the memorials of their dead are not prominent, picturesque, and familiar features. In this, no less than in the varied phenomena of their burial customs, the preparation of the funeral pile, the fabrication of the finely ornamented urns, and the costly dedication of articles of use or adornment, freely renounced by the survivors, and set apart from the inheritance of the living as grave-goods for the dead, we realize the intensity of their devotion to filial memories and family ties, to hereditary honor and ancestral tradition" (pp. 226-7).

In the remaining chapters, "The Age of Stone" is treated in a similar method. The "structural" constructions of the remarkable group of Chambered Cairns of Caithness, Argyll, Orkney, etc., are carefully reviewed, with an interesting account of such implements and weapons of the Stone Age as have been discovered. Of dates or epochs, however, Dr. Anderson says absolutely nothing. Man of the Stone Age he regards with higher favor than has hitherto been customary:

"Reviewing the whole phenomena of the Stone Age as these are manifested in Scotland, we find them affording evidences of capacity and culture in the individual, associated with evidences of civilization in the community. The application of intellect and energy to the perfection of the art of working in stone is effected in directions that are different from those adopted by workers in metals. But it would be manifestly absurd to say that the application of intellect and handicraft to the perfection of an art is culture when it is directed to one material, and is not culture when it is directed to another. Again, when we consider the aggregates of individuals in whom this culture existed, we find them possessing social organizations sufficient for the construction of works of enormous magnitude. These vast sepulchral constructions, which are necessarily the work of aggregates, are thus in their nature and significance essentially evidences of civilization. As time rolls on and fashions change with the ever-increasing complexities of social organization, the methods of expression may be altered or may be improved; but will any one say that the moral feeling and sense of public duty which then found expression in the manner of the time were less moral and less dutiful than those which find expression now in the manner of our time? In this man of the Stone Age, whose capacity, culture, and civilization are thus made dimly visible to us by the relics of his life and the memorials of his dead; this maker of finely formed and admirably finished tools and implements in stone; this builder of great sepulchral monuments that are completely structural, we have reached the typical representative of primeval man in Scotland. There is no evidence of the existence within our area of any representative type of man of higher antiquity or of lower culture than this" (pp. 381-385).

The fact, however, of the discovery of weapons of polished flint proves no more than possession

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of the ability to polish it; just as similar capacities of modern savage tribes do not make them civilized. The existence of "vast sepulchral constructions," displaying no mechanical, engineering, or even architectural skill, and little more than huge piles of stones rudely put together, no doubt implies more than the labor of an individual. If "necessarily the work of aggregates," in itself it postulates nothing as to an organized form of society higher than what may any day be seen in a tribe of savages combining for the moment to realize some special end; while between the "moral" feeling displayed in the erection of a cairn of stones as a sepulchre for the dead with its accompanying urn, and the "moral feeling and culture of to-day," there is an infinite distance. The difference may not be absolute, but only in degree. Yet between the "capacity, culture, and civilization" of this man of the Stone Age, and the "capacity, culture, and civilization" of to-day, there is all the difference between savage and civilized man. Indeed, on the social and political conditions and religious ideas and ceremonies—the great questions with which modern archæology has to do—these volumes do not directly touch. They are rather an illustrated and descriptive catalogue of the remains of the past found in the National Museum and throughout the country. They are, however, the outcome of patient and careful research. They contain full and accurate information regarding the whole field of Scottish archæology as it stands at present. The illustrations are elaborate and executed in the highest style. Altogether, this series of the Rhind lectures must henceforth be invaluable to the student of Scottish archæology.

Psychiatry: A clinical treatise on the diseases of the fore-brain, based upon a study of its structure, functions, and nutrition. By Theodor Meynert. Translated (under authority of the author) by B. Sachs, M.D. Part I. The anatomy, physiology, and chemistry of the brain. O., pp. 285, 65 figures. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1885.

In this, the first part of Meynert's last work, the following general topics are taken up in order: Structure and architecture of the brain; the minute anatomy of the brain; anatomical corollaries and the physiology of cerebral architecture; the nutrition of the brain; the mechanism of expression. The author's preface states that the work has been written at intervals (and with "no taste for bookmaking") during the past ten years, which may explain, but does not excuse, certain omissions, anachronisms, and other objectionable features. It is unfortunate for author, translator, and readers that the work appears in parts; if this was unavoidable, the present volume should have embraced the notes (promised for Part II in the preface) from which one might gather wherein the author's "views have been necessarily modified or supplemented by later researches" of himself and others.

The remarks in the preface that "hitherto the science of psychiatry has been too largely subjective," and that "our knowledge of the diseases of the fore-brain should be obtained by a study of the structure, the function, and the nutrition of the organ concerned," may have been novel when the book was begun, but all recent treatises on mental disorders take the same ground. Meynert's account of the development, surfaces, and cavities of the prosencephalon adds to less than it detracts from the usefulness of the work. It is not too much to say that what is certainly true is not new, and what is original is usually not proven, often improbable (as the homologies of the cerebral fissures), and sometimes literally improbable and confusing (as the account of the "foramen of Monro," p. 18). The author admits (p. 131) a previous error of opinion on one point, but adheres to a view respecting the course of conductors in the spinal cord which, the translator is forced to acknowledge (p. 131, note), differs widely from that of original observers like Flechsig, Aeby, Roller, Wernicke, Spitzka, and Starr. Meynert states that he has not adopted any new method, but has elaborated with greater care the cleavage (defibrillation) method of his predecessors, which "enables us also to extend our knowledge of the minute anatomy of the brain beyond the information we can obtain from microscopical sections." This last claim will not be generally conceded; on the contrary, at the present day, few neurologists admit that the cleavage method is competent to settle any question unless corroborated by the microscopical, embryological, or atrophy methods, which have been so successfully employed by some of his own pupils. It would seem, indeed, that the "reorganizer of encephalic anatomy" of fifteen years ago now lags somewhat behind his own recent followers.

The references in this work to other publications are few and general, the most important and specific being embraced in the translator's note to page 131. Dalton's magnificent 'Topographical Anatomy of the Brain' might well have been named in connection with the macroscopic structure, since it appeared some months prior to the present volume. The original has no index, and that of the translation is very incomplete, omitting such names as *pons*, *oblongata*, *insula*, and *occipital operculum*, all of which occur in the text. Minor defects of the translation are the irregular use of italics, and the introduction of inelegant abbreviations like *epenceph.*, *pes ped.*, and *corp. callos.* The figures are numerous and mostly clear in themselves, but the explanations are inadequate and ill-arranged. It is safe to say that to find the meanings of the several abbreviations—some German, some Latin—in, for example, figure 9, exacts from each reader as much time as it would have cost the author to make the signs uniform and arrange them alphabetically, to say nothing of the exasperation almost inevitably engendered. So long as leading German scientists and philosophers practise—if they do not openly profess—the "Browningian" doctrine that obscurity is the sign of profundity, it would be too much, perhaps, to have expected the author to deliberately undertake to make his writings readily intelligible and easy of reference; but surely we may look for some improvement in that respect in an American translation.

Of the figures exhibiting encephalic structure, fine and coarse, including the fissures, nearly two-fifths represent the brains of monkeys, dogs, cats, etc. Usually the points in question would have been illustrated equally well and much more appropriately by human brains, especially fœtal, to which latter, however, the author states (p. 7) he has given little attention. Moreover, only the professional zoölogist could be expected to recognize monkey in *Hamadryas* (fig. 8), or even weasel in *Mustela* (fig. 10). The tendency of medical writers to intrude irrelevant matters of comparative anatomy (apparently because the subjects are convenient or otherwise interesting) is one which should be checked, in the interest of the patients whose health and lives may hang upon an absolutely accurate acquaintance with the human structure. Besides somewhat numerous typographical errors, for which the publishers are equally responsible, the translation reproduces the original's mistake of rendering *Affengehirn* by *primate brain*, and *die Olive des Menschen* by "the olivary body, common to man."

The philosophical portions of the book are good upon the whole, though not markedly in advance of the author's previous writings. The general reader will be interested in parts of this, and in the pretty and instructive diagrams on pages 157, 158, illustrating the paths of sensory and motor impulses. Some of the psychological portions are pungent and even witty, and the remark that "Volitional mimical movements lack the character of spontaneity, and become ridiculous as expressions of foppishness, or excite contempt as expressions of falsehood," applies to many popular follies (Anglomania, etc.) of the day. Little as the present treatise is likely to enhance the already high reputation of the author, it is needful for working neurologists, and Dr. Sachs deserves their thanks and congratulations for making his teacher's views more generally accessible to English and American readers. He is certainly warranted in remarking that "those best acquainted with the original will not underrate the difficulties of the task."

Poets and Problems. By George Willis Cooke. Boston: Ticknor & Co. 1886.

Mr. Cooke deals with the "prophets," Tennyson, Ruskin, and Browning, in their world-and-time relations. He is not a critic, at least not an ordinary professional critic. For that *genus*, "the vultures seeking only to satisfy their hunger by the task of their pens," he has "little other than feelings of contempt," both for itself and for "the methods by which it contrives to live." He himself is quite a different creature. "I enjoy the pages of Browning at the same time I enjoy those of Tennyson"; because, it seems, he seeks "to give them the sympathetic appreciation they demand." "I am of the opinion," he adds, "that this is the first and highest quality in the critic; and if he does not possess it, he is wholly unworthy the name." An inference as to Mr. Cooke's right to bear the name, in his own judgment, is easily made. He says, further, of his own endowment, that his "essays will everywhere betray my incapacity for finding the faults of the authors of whom I have written." This sentence appears to be a slip of humility. To quote at random, he says later on that "'Maud' betrays Tennyson's incapacity for plot and structural creative power." We pass the Mohawk English of this to note that "the defects of 'Maud' reappear in 'The Princess'"; that "Arthur is an unreal person in the Idyls"; that Ruskin is "not always a true guide to the technical interpretation of art"; that he "misread the life of Turner"; that he is "petulant," "complaining," "querulous," "wrong-headed," "wilful," "quite out of the way of what is simple and sensible," "too much a sentimentalist," "a social fanatic." Browning is "often wanting in artistic beauty and finish"; "delights in parentheses, an abomination"; "as a poet he can afford us little pleasure in his more thoughtful poems"; "he 'wrote Greek in shorthand,'" and "the criticism is justly made," etc. Mr. Cooke wrote better than he knew; in fact, as his essays, which have the diffuseness of sermons, are the reproduction of the current general criticism, he could not easily exclude "the defects" of the three "prophets." The special mark of his book, however, is its relating the poetic work of these men to a transcendental pseudo-pantheism, which is the latest hybrid birth of science and philosophy. This, too, is at second-hand—a consideration which we mention not as a fault, but as a fact. The personal and original element he gives us lies in the tone of his "sympathetic" laudation. He writes of Ruskin, for example, as one "whose eyes are set with tender ravishment on all the deeds of men." Picture it! But the critic, one must re-

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member, "holds his author at arm's-length, and scrutinizes him as he would a fossil"; and the idea of a fossil gazing at anything with "tender ravishment"! Again, he says of Browning: "With an eye keen for facts, like Darwin's, he unites a subtle instinct for truth, like Kant's, and Dante's high-soaring imagination"; but again, too, one recollects that the critic is "too often of a cold and analytic mind." Mr. Cooke may rest in quiet: he is not a critic; no one will ever charge him with any worse fault than sermonizing.

The White Horses of the West of England. With Notices of some other Ancient Turf-monuments. By the Rev. W. C. Plenderleath, M.A., Rector of Cherhill, Wilts. London: Alfred Russell Smith. 1886.

As far as seems to be known, delineations in turf are, at least for Europe, confined to Great Britain, and, almost exclusively, to the southern part of the kingdom; only a single specimen of them having been discovered in Scotland, and none at all in Ireland. One of these tracings, cut, in some immemorial age, on the declivity of a chalk hill at Whiteleaf, in Buckinghamshire, has the form of a cross, measuring 55 feet high, supported by a triangular base 340 feet in width, and 175 feet in elevation. Of human figures depicted on hillsides there are two instances. One of these, speculatively referred to a date anterior to A. D. 600, is to be seen near Corne Abbas, in Dorsetshire. It represents a naked man, with a club in his right hand, and covers nearly an acre of ground. Whether it commemorates the Saxon god Heil is an open question with antiquaries. Its sole brother in the land is the Long Man, so called, at Wilmington, in Sussex. This figure has its arms partly extended, and holds in each hand a staff reaching to the level of its feet. Its height is 240 feet; and its extreme width, from hand to hand, is 148 feet. In 1874 it was retouched, to the effect of rendering it more permanent and more easily discernible, at the expense of the Duke of Devonshire, on one of whose domains it stands.

Much more noticeable than these, however, among the English turf-monuments, are the picturings of horses, all of which, except a red horse in Warwickshire, giving its name to the Vale of Red Horse, are white. The most ancient of these, the Uffington Horse, in Berkshire, and the horse on Bratton Hill, near Westbury, Wilts, lie each in close proximity to a reputed Danish camp, and are traditionally associated with signal successes achieved against the Danes, by King Alfred, in A. D. 871 and 878, respectively. The Uffington Horse, which exhibits the fantastic peculiarity of having a bird's head, measures 355 feet from the nose to the tail, and 120 feet from the ear to the hoof. Of the festivities connected with the periodical cleanings of it a full account is given in Mr. Hughes's 'Scouring of the White Horse.' The Bratton Hill Horse, which was destroyed in 1778, yielded, in dimensions, to its prototype at Uffington, in being only 100 feet long; but its existing successor, designed in 1853, has a length of 175 feet, with height in due proportion. Other horses are found at Cherhill, and likewise near Marlborough, as well as elsewhere. These, however, are all of them of recent date. For their history, and also for ample details regarding the older horses, accompanied with a profusion of relevant antiquarian lore, the reader must be referred to Mr. Plenderleath's curious and researchful monograph.

Old Salem. By Eleanor Putnam. Edited by Arlo Bates. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1886.

Not a few of our readers, probably, will remember a short series of charming papers in the *Atlantic* not long ago, upon the cupboards and shops of Salem, and upon a "dame-school" there, which were distinguished by simplicity and freshness of touch, and seemed really to have absorbed into their sentiment the not too oppressive odor of antiquity which still lingers about the streets and wharves of the sleepy city. It would be difficult to write about "Old Salem" without entertainment; but the author of these papers had so delicate a touch, so womanly a tenderness for associations, and yet humor and fancy, and alertness in catching the artistic outlines of character, together with such loving acquaintance with the scene, that the pictures of "Old Salem" which she promised would have been a rare treat. Of these but one new one, and that a fragment, is added to those already published—a sketch, "My Cousin the Captain." The thin volume which is thus made is a kind of memorial given to the public by her husband. The author died before she had got fairly into the work of reminiscence which she had proposed, and one reads the relics of her literary life with a regret that they should be so scanty, and with a somewhat saddened appreciation of their delightfulness.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Albert Victor and George of Wales, Princes. The Cruise of Her Majesty's Ship *Bacchante*, 1879-1882. 2 vols. Macmillan & Co. $16.
Allen, J. B. Rudimenta Latina. Macmillan & Co.
Anson, Sir W. R. The Law and Custom of the Constitution. Part I. Parliament. Macmillan & Co. $2.75.
Boyesen, H. The Story of Norway. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Boston Illustrated. Revised ed. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 50 cents.
Bradford, Mrs. Sarah H. Harriet, the Moses of Her People. 2d ed. George R. Lockwood & Son.
Brown, M. T. The Synthetic Philosophy of Expression as Applied to the Arts of Reading, Oratory, and Personation. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Bryan, C. W. The Book of Berkshire County, Massachusetts. Describing and Illustrating its Hills and Homes. Great Barrington: C. W. Bryan & Co. 50 cents.
Buchheim, Pauline. Schiller's Ausgewählte Briefe. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Deschanel, E. Le Théâtre de Voltaire. [Le Romantisme des Classiques; cinquième série.] Boston: Schoenhof.
Evans, W. F. Esoteric Christianity and Mental Therapeutics. Boston: H. H. Carter & Karrick.
Gleason, O. R. How to Handle and Educate Vicious Horses, Together with Hints on the Training and Health of Dogs. O. Judd Co. $1.
Gould, S. B. The Story of Germany. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Hall, H. S., and Knight, S. R. Algebraical Exercises and Examination Papers. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Howe, E. W. Moonlight Boy. Boston: Ticknor & Co.
Kedzie, J. H. Solar Heat, Gravitation, and Sun Spots. Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co. $1.50.
Leighton, Dr. J. The Jewish Altar: An Inquiry into the Spirit and Intent of the Expiatory Offerings of the Mosaic Ritual. Funk & Wagnalls. 75 cents.
Lemaître, J. Les Contemporains; deuxième série. Boston: Schoenhof.
Loughead, Flora Haines. The Man Who was Guilty. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 50 cents.
Masson, G. Molière's 'Les Fourberies de Scapin.' Introduction and Notes. Macmillan & Co. 40 cents.
Messenger, Lillian Rozell. The Vision of Gold, and Other Poems. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
Miller, Dr. J. R. Silent Times: A Book to Help in Reading the Bible into Life. Thomas Y. Crowell. $1.25.
Minto, W. The Crack of Doom: A Novel. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Müller, Prof. W. Mythologie der Deutschen Heldensage. Heilbronn: Gebr. Henninger.
New Princeton Review. Vol I. 1886. January, March, May. A. C. Armstrong & Co. $2.50.
Norris, W. E. Her Own Doing: A Novel. Harper's Handy Series. 25 cents.
Payn, J. The Heir of the Ages: A Novel. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 25 cents.
Perkins, C. C. Ghiberti et son Ecole. Paris: J. Rouam.
Perkins, J. B. France under Mazarin, with a Review of the Administration of Richelieu. 2 vols. $5.
Perry, Canon G. G. History of the Reformation in England. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 80 cents.
Potter, B. W. The Road and the Roadside. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Raymond, G. L. A Life in Song. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
Rice, A. T. Reminiscences of Abraham Lincoln, by Distinguished Men of his Time. North American Publishing Co.
Rorer, Mrs. S. T. Philadelphia Cook Book. Philadelphia: George H. Buchanan & Co.
Scott, Sir W. Lay of the Last Minstrel. Edited by Prof. W. Minto. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
Taswell-Langmead, T. P. English Constitutional History from the Teutonic Conquest to the Present Time. 3d ed. revised. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $7.50.

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